The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 10, 1887.

The Week.

THE first debate in the Senate on the Treasury surplus took place on Wednesday while the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was under consideration. Senator Morrill of Vermont had made a set speech on this subject a few days after Congress met last December, intending to show that the surplus was all moonshine, and that there was no such thing, but, on the contrary, a deficit of more than $24,000,000, according to the report of the Secretary of the Treasury. Now, Senator Allison, reasoning from the same premises and quoting the same authority, makes out a surplus of $15,000,000, after allowing $5,000,000 for the Mexican Pension Bill and $7,000,000 to $8,000,000 for the Dependent Pension Bill, which had not been passed when Mr. Morrill made his speech—the difference between the two estimates being upwards of $50,000,000. Both included an estimate of $48,000,000 for the Sinking Fund. Senator Allison, however, had the frankness to admit, that the Sinking Fund appropriation had become obsolete, there being no bonds to which it could be applied after the close of the present fiscal year, except by the payment of a high premium. This admission established a surplus of $48,000,000, plus $15,000,000, total $63,000,000, which, Senator Beck said, was $27,000,000 less than the real surplus, as he would take an early occasion to show.

We judge that Mr. Beck is right for once, because the report of the Secretary of the Treasury says in so many words that the excess of ordinary revenue over ordinary expenditure for the past ten years has averaged $100,000,000 per year, which amount has been applied, by the Sinking Fund and by extra bond payments, to the extinguishment of the public debt. Now, the reductions of taxes have not reduced the receipts of the Treasury in any material sense in the past ten years, nor have the expenditures materially increased. The increase in pensions has about balanced the reduction of interest on the public debt up to this time, and the elasticity of the revenue has about balanced the reduction of internal-revenue taxes. The fair presumption is that the future receipts and expenditures, if legislation remains unchanged, will continue to show nearly or quite $100,000,000 of surplus. Allowance must be made for the unknown calls under the Dependent Pension Bill, if that profligate and demoralizing measure becomes a law; but, if we take into account only the present outgo of the Treasury and the present income, there is little doubt that the fiscal year ending June 30, 1888, will show a surplus of about $90,000,000, after making allowance for $24,000,000 for waste upon silver bullion.

No measure for the reduction of taxes having been agreed upon, or seriously considered, since the refusal of the House to take up the Morrison bill, and the session being two-thirds gone, it seems highly probable that the adjournment of Congress will leave the Administration just where it is now, with a swelling revenue and no place to put it after the 30th of June. Even the profligate pension bill, added to an equally profligate fortification bill, would fail to meet the emergency, because these measures could not take effect under a twelvemonth. However great their powers of absorption, they would not begin soon enough. What, then, is the alternative? Secretary Manning intimates pretty plainly what he would do in such a case. He would apply the surplus revenue to the retirement of the only part of the public debt which is payable at par on demand, viz., the greenback debt. Could he do otherwise? Could any other Secretary do otherwise? We do not see what else could be done. A surplus revenue must either be hoarded or used. If there is only one way to use it, then that way is the right way and the lawful way. Who shall gainsay it? Certainly not the class of spouters who have been declaiming against Mr. Manning the past two years for locking up his money in the strong box. He could not under existing law cancel the greenbacks, but he could retire them, and leave Congress to decide affirmatively what disposition should be made of them.

The Senate has taken an unusual step in removing the mask of secrecy from the proceedings in executive session in the Matthews case, and publishing a defence of itself for refusing to confirm a certain person to a certain office. Never did the maxim *Qui s'excuse s'accuse* find an apter illustration. The document given to the public in this remarkable manner is extorted under duress, and in the immediate fear of some serious loss or division of the colored vote, to the harm and detriment of the Republican party. The colored press of the country has espoused the cause of Matthews. Public opinion among the colored people has been profoundly moved by the rejection of a colored man by a nearly unanimous Republican vote in the Senate. In the North this feeling has been pronounced and outspoken. It is no mean political factor in the doubtful States. In New York especially it is potent and menacing. Something must be done to explain and palliate the rejection of Matthews, the colored man, as Recorder of Deeds in the District of Columbia, if the colored vote is to be retained as a solid phalanx in the Republican column. The specific reasons assigned by the Senate for rejecting him are frivolous in the extreme. It is said that Mr. Matthews was not a resident of the District of Columbia, that he was not so distinguished a representative of the colored race as Frederick Douglas, that there is no *official* evidence that he is a colored man at all, and that his reappointment after having been once rejected was an act of disrespect to the Senate. It is a sufficient answer to all these objections to say that if a Republican President had done exactly what Mr. Cleveland has done in the premises, Mr. Matthews would have been confirmed without any delay or cavil. The real objection to Matthews is that he is nominated by a Democratic President, contrary to a cherished theory that all negroes are Republicans by virtue of their color.

We suppose that it was fear of the "soldier vote" which chiefly actuated a bare majority of the Senate, on Thursday, in discharging the Committee on Pensions from further consideration of the bill removing the existing limitation of time within which application for arrears of pensions may be made, so that if a man in 1887 is awarded a pension on account of a wound or disability incurred in 1861, he may draw his monthly allowance for a period covering more than a quarter of a century in a lump sum — which, for a $12 a month pension, would amount to more than $5,000. The bill now is in such shape that it may be brought up for final action at any moment, and the promoters of the scheme apparently mean to try and push it through. We are glad to note that Gen. Hawley of Connecticut voted against the measure, and we hope that this indicates a purpose on his part to fight the scheme in good earnest. More forcibly than any other Senator he could show that the self-respecting soldiers do not approve these wholesale pension grabs, and that the public man who opposes them need have no fear of offending the "soldier vote."

The vetoes of private pension bills which the President sent to the House on Saturday freshly illustrate the utter recklessness with which claims are now urged by what Gen. Bragg calls "the rubbish of the army." Cudbert Stone was voted a pension by Congress on the ground that he had incurred a pensionable disability during his "long and faithful service" in the army. The records of the War Department, however, show that he enlisted October 25, 1861, and was reported as deserted from December 31, 1861, until November, 1864. He was mustered out with his company January 31, 1865, with no evidence of disability, and he filed no claim for pension until 1881, when he alleged that he contracted a disability in the winter of 1863, although he subsequently changed this date and alleged that the disease was contracted "while he was being carried from place to place as a prisoner, he having been tried by a court-martial in May, 1862, for desertion, and sentenced to imprisonment until the expiration of his term of enlistment." It thus appears, by his own admission, that he spent most of his term in desertion or in imprisonment for desertion, and yet a committee of Congress reported in favor of granting him a pension on account of the "long and faithful service and the high character of the claimant"! The President withholds his assent, on the ground that "the allowance of this claim would, in my opinion, be a travesty upon our whole scheme of pensions, and an insult to every decent veteran soldier."

The letter of Secretary Manning to Chairman Belmont, in reply to the request of the

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House Committee on Foreign Affairs for his opinion on the House and Senate retaliation bills, is a very wide-ranging discussion of the whole fishery question. Accordingly it does not seem to us to be a document appropriate to the Treasury Department, but rather to the President of the United States. For once we think that Mr. Manning has overhot the mark. The subject treated relates mainly to the legislation of a foreign Power. It is, therefore, of a diplomatic nature. It concerns the Treasury only so far as it may affect the revenue or the tonnage of the United States. The question whether fishing smacks should have the maritime character of trading vessels engaged in international commerce is hardly a fiscal question. The question whether a British law enacted in 1830 is in the nature of a treaty or compact with us, is not primarily a matter for our Treasury to deal with. We regret, therefore, that Mr. Manning should have given any direction to his reply outside of its purely fiscal bearings. We regret, also, that he should have suggested so extreme a measure as the stopping of A's trade and profits because B has had some trouble with C in a foreign country.

We are not surprised to learn that the impeachment of Secretary Manning, on account of his reply to the House resolution inquiring about the denominations of greenbacks and silver certificates issued by the Treasury Department, has been deferred until the return of Mr. Bland, who is now temporarily absent from Washington. We hope, by the way, that Mr. Bland will be able to give a satisfactory reason for being away at such a crisis. In his absence the laboring oar has fallen to the hand of Gen. Weaver of Iowa, the leader of the Greenback-Labor party, with such small assistance as he can get from Mr. Payson, a Republican member from Illinois. It is most desirable that the impeachment proceedings should be begun under Democratic auspices. It is also important that the grounds for impeachment should be stated so that common people can understand them, a task which might be beyond Gen. Weaver's powers. A careful examination of Secretary Manning's letter throws no light upon the legal basis of the proposed impeachment, although it serves to show just cause for discontent on the part of Weaver and his faction, carrying as it does the lurking suspicion that the movers of the resolution of inquiry were ignorant of divers weighty facts that had already been officially laid before them, and that if they had taken the trouble to examine these facts in the light of existing laws, they would never have asked such questions. We have spent a good deal of time studying the Secretary's letter since the anger of certain persons was aroused by it, but we can find nothing in it that can be regarded as impeachable, except the inference which a logical mind might deduce from it that certain persons are blockheads.

We called attention last summer, when the Sedgwick incident in Mexico was before the public, to the discredit brought on the United States Government by the presence in its service in the City of Mexico of the person who made himself at that time notorious in the newspapers as "Porch, Consul-General." Porch was a backwoods lawyer from Missouri, without a single qualification for his place, ignorant, illiterate, uncouth, and, as it plainly appeared, also an ass. There never was any reason for giving him an office of such importance except that Senator Cockrell had taken a fancy to him and pushed him for it. When Mr. Sedgwick arrived on the scene, Porch took to sending wild and scandalous telegrams about him, and got together a meeting of American waifs and strays at his house to denounce him. He did the same sort of thing afterwards to Mr. Manning. Mr. Bayard ought to have promptly dismissed him when he began telegraphing about Mr. Sedgwick. Why he did not has always been a mystery, but we presume it was because Senator Cockrell fought hard for his ridiculous protégé. We are glad to say that this nuisance and disgrace has at last been abated. "Porch, Consul-General," is a thing of the past. He has been "bounced." His successor, a certain Mr. More, also a Missourian, is said, as far as special knowledge goes, to be as unfit as Porch, but there can hardly be a doubt that he has more common sense and sense of decency.

It seems that the two salesmen whom Judge Bond discharged the other day from an indictment for trading in Virginia without a license after they had offered coupons in payment, were representatives of a Philadelphia and New York house. This is a fact worth noting. It looks very much as if firms in other States had no objection to paying license fees with coupons. It is not impossible, indeed, that they take a positive pleasure in thus retaliating against a State which has, time and time again, by unconstitutional laws, endeavored to discriminate in favor of home salesmen. Now, the State Attorney and Virginian authorities generally base their hopes of non-user of coupons on patriotism more than anything else; but if foreign drummers are thus going to pay license fees at fifty cents on the dollar, it will take a strong dose of patriotism for home merchants to continue to pay their merchants' licenses in gold. Flesh and blood of business men could not stand that. It is safe to say that if the bars to the Treasury are once let down, a stampede will follow. Another straw in this case is that one of the counsel who appeared for the salesmen is a gentleman who has been wont to declare, like State Attorney Ayers, that no power in government can overcome a united people; and yet he has now joined against a united people in the hopeless task of sustaining the Constitution of the United States. This theory, that a united people cannot be made amenable to laws and government, presents a good many difficulties. There are a number of historical facts seemingly irreconcilable with it, and it might be well if the State authorities of Virginia would consult with the Latter-Day Saints of Utah as to why it is that a theory so generally accepted is of such little use to either of them in their present difficulties.

Several canvasses of the New York Legislature have been made recently on the Presidential candidate question, and have all resulted in showing that Blaine is the favorite of the Republican members and Hill of the Democratic, though a large proportion of the members of both political parties are non-committal. As, by universal consent, this is one of the worst Legislatures we have had at Albany in recent years, the preference of its members is a doubtful compliment for any candidate. Here, for example, is the former Hill organ, the *World*, compelled to say of the very men who favor Hill as a candidate, that their action of a day or two before in voting to repeal the civil-service laws was a "gratuitous performance in butting their heads against a stone wall." We call the *World* a former Hill organ because just at present it appears to be in favor of Mr. Conkling as the Democratic candidate in 1888. This disposition has called out a friendly warning from the *Sun*, which may be called the voice of experience. The *Sun*, while doubting the wisdom of the plan, says: "This is all very well. We live in a free country, and one of the rights which our sires fought and bled for is the right of every newspaper to support or oppose a candidate for office as it may deem advisable." The exercise of this right by the *Sun* in 1884 brought to its candidate, Butler, the magnificent total of 3,499 votes in this city, and cost the editor about 45,000 subscribers, or one-third of his entire circulation.

Commissioner Woodman of the Excise Board introduced on Friday the following resolution, which was laid over for consideration:

"Resolved, That on and after February 15, 1887, no license shall be granted to open a new saloon in any Assembly district of this city, unless, and until, the number of licensed saloons in any Assembly district from which such license is applied for shall not exceed in ratio one to every five hundred inhabitants of said district: the census to be based on the registration of voters for the Mayoralty election immediately preceding the date of such application."

This is, we believe, the first attempt at official recognition of the fact that one of the duties of the Excise Commissioners is to keep the number of liquor-stores within reasonable limits. Hitherto all that the public has expected of them, and all that they, in their most respectable moods, professed to care about, was the restriction of the licenses to persons who would not or did not permit their houses to become notorious resorts for bad characters. But the public is no longer content with this. It demands that liquor-dealing, no matter how or by whom conducted, be cut down—that, in other words, liquor be made scarce and harder to get; that the presumption that selling it is a useful and harmless industry be reversed; and that licenses be granted solely on the presumption that it is an evil, even if an inevitable evil, and, therefore, is to be made as small as possible. We hope, whether the High-License Bill passes or not, to see the exercise by the present Board of all the powers they now have in the direction of reducing the appalling number of liquor-stores by which this city is now cursed. The Commissioners may rely on the fullest support from the great bulk of the population, and it will never be so strong, and hearty, and determined as when the liquor-dealers come out in force in defence of their

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infernal trade. Nothing is so desirable as that they should let us hear what they have to say in defence of it.

The land question seems to have dropped into a very subordinate position in Mr. Henry George's mind. He is now engaged heart and soul in demolishing the Catholic Church. His paper, the *Standard*, published weekly at five cents, is almost wholly given up to this great enterprise. We presume he thinks the removal of this church is an essential preliminary to the process of making the farmers surrender their farms to the Master Workman. We think he is right in this view. We would, were we in his place, get the church out of the way first, and then enlarge his paper and go for the farmers. He has a magnificent job before him, of the kind an industrious man loves.

Some of the newspapers, both religious and secular, have been trying to persuade themselves that the McGlynn affair may develop into a formidable schism in the Roman Catholic Church. This is but the latest manifestation of a curious delusion that a new Luther may be looked for almost any day. In spite of the fact that several of the most promising Luthers have turned out disappointingly—witness Father Chiniquy, Père Hyacinthe, and "Bishop" McNamara, so assiduously heralded as the coming man in this city seven years ago—many still hold to their belief that the genuine reformer will yet arise. There seems to be no way, in fact, of convincing these visionaries that their hopes are equivalent to looking for 1517 over again. What is of more account, however, is the attempt made by many of our contemporaries to show the surprising tyranny of Dr. McGlynn's ecclesiastical superiors, and to contrast it with the methods of Protestantism. It may safely be affirmed that any Protestant church would act in similar circumstances precisely as the Roman Catholic Church is doing in the case referred to—that is, it would discipline, suspend, or excommunicate any of its clergy who should persist in teaching a doctrine at variance with its standards. The fact that an offending minister's parishioners were all devotedly attached to him, and were strenuous in desiring the continuance of his services, would make no more difference with the decision of one polity than with that of the other.

A good case in point is the action of the Presbytery of Philadelphia in refusing to allow Dr. L. W. Bacon to continue as minister of the Woodland Church. Dr. Bacon was willing to assent to the doctrinal standards of the Presbyterian Church, provided he were allowed to explain in what sense his assent was meant. In private conference with him, a Committee of the Presbytery found and reported that his views were substantially orthodox, and that they were consistent with an acceptance of the Westminster Confession; but because he persisted in thinking that they were not, he was refused installation over a church earnestly desirous that he should be its pastor, on the sole ground, therefore, that he would not stultify himself as the Presbytery wished him to do. Those religious newspapers which are saying that the members of St. Stephen's Church will find it an "educating" experience thus to be deprived of the pastor of their choice, ought to see that the same thing might happen in any Protestant communion. "Ah, but it was not for heresy, only for exercising his rights as an American citizen, that Dr. McGlynn had to suffer." Archbishop Corrigan maintains, it must be remembered, and his published letters bear him out, that the offence was purely that of insubordination and heretical teaching. But granting that the Archbishop does not know or is concealing the truth, and that Henry George is correct, even then the contrast between the Protestant way and the Catholic will not appear to be marked. Surely we are not yet so far from the Presidential election of 1884 as to make it hard to call to mind the cases of Protestant ministers who suffered for refusing to vote for Mr. Blaine. Mr. Bacon of New Haven was forced to resign his pulpit for that reason alone, and the same thing happened to an Episcopal rector of Erie, Pa. In short, it needs but a little reflection to see that ecclesiastical governments, as such, cannot differ very greatly from each other; they all propose substantially the same ends, and vary only in the name and form of the machinery adopted to secure them. Looking to matters of polity alone, Steele's jesting description of the difference between the Catholic Church and the Protestant is not so wide of the truth—that the former claims to be infallible, the latter only that it never makes any mistakes.

"Society" is every day becoming burdened with a heavier load of responsibility. The men who robbed the Jersey City Post-office last week explained to the wife of the Postmaster, after they had tied her down in bed and gagged her husband, "that society had driven them to this, as some had everything and they had nothing." What a very solemn fact this is. We have heard often enough that society is responsible for the tramps who infest the country roads in the summer time, but we were really not prepared to hear that society was now driving men into robbing post-offices. The only quick and sure remedy we can suggest is to place on the pension list every man who says that dissatisfaction with the present division of property impels him to be a robber. We ought not to wait until he actually robs before we do this. We ought to take the poor fellow's word for it in advance, before his soul is stained with crime. Could there be a higher and holier use for the surplus than pensioning those who without pensions would become burglars?

The Boston correspondent of the *Evening Post* gives some account of the attempts which are being made in Massachusetts to deal with the problem of heating and lighting cars in railroad trains, to which the recent tragedy in Vermont has given such horrible significance. It is very disgraceful to the railroad corporations that they should have waited to be forced into improvement on this point by legislation, considering how often accidents have, of late years, been accompanied by the burning alive of human beings, in the presence of the helpless bystanders. One such horror ought to be enough to set every company in the country at work contriving means to get the stove and the kerosene lamp out of the cars. The safe and simple plan of heating by steam from the locomotive has been objected to on the ground that single cars could not be temporarily cut off from the rest of the train, or the train detached from the locomotive, without complete loss of heat. But experiments made in Massachusetts seem to establish the fact that the steam in the pipes will retain its heating power for a full hour, which is as long as it is ever needed in any train or car in the absence of the engine. The one peril which this plan does not provide for is that of being snowed up. This, in some parts of the country, might be now and then serious, but it cannot be compared to the danger of being roasted alive. People can contend against extreme cold, in the shelter of a car, with more or less success. The correspondent's account of the experiments with the electric light is also interesting and important. It is hardly possible that any railroad corporation will venture to delay any longer the attempt to banish both the stove and the lamp, which, in view of these experiments, are "twin relics of barbarism."

There are a good many reasons for believing that the war talk at Berlin is "campaign thunder," intended to affect the elections for the Reichstag, now pending. But this is not as innocuous as it seems, for of course the French will not stand a great deal of threatening, or witness unmoved a great deal even of pretence of getting ready to fight them. It will, of course, suit Boulanger's purpose very well to seem to have his hand forced, and therefore, if he be really as much bent on war as he is accused of being, the war articles in the German press and the German movements of troops must be to his liking. That either the French or German people are anxious for a fight, or see the smallest necessity for fighting, there is not the least sign. If, in fact, the war breaks out, the cause of it will be a secret locked up in the breasts of the high strategists, and it will be as great a discredit to our civilization as any of Louis Fourteenth's. The whole affair illustrates the difficulty of carrying on a parliamentary government based on universal suffrage, while maintaining a large standing army and cultivating the military spirit among the people. If you have a large standing army, you cannot introduce foreign politics into the canvasses before election without running the risk of setting the world in a blaze. Every wild expression of a stump orator or roaring editor sends a shrill of martial ardor through millions of breasts. Here, on the contrary, having neither army nor navy, our orators can hurl defiance to the four corners of the globe without quickening a single pulse.

The revised version of the story of the Italian troubles in Africa is, that the fight in which the Italian troops were worsted was with the Abyssinians and not with the Sudanese after all, which makes the situation more serious, as the Abyssinians are at closer quarters and have a better base of operation than the Arabs. What the use is of Massowah to Italy, does not appear to have been brought out in the debates in Parliament over the despatch of reinforcements.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

WEDNESDAY, February 2, to TUESDAY, February 8, 1887, inclusive.

DOMESTIC.

THE Dependent Pension Bill did not reach the President until Monday night, January 31, and he will have until Friday, February 11, to determine upon his course with respect to it. The Cabinet are earnestly opposed to the measure. Secretary Manning and Assistant Secretary Fairchild think it is the worst bill that was ever sent to the President. They regard it as extremely dangerous. The President has received private appeals from prominent persons urging him to veto the bill.

The President signed the Electoral Count and Inter-State Commerce bills on Friday. He has not yet selected the five Commissioners under the latter bill.

President Cleveland on Monday nominated E. C. More of Missouri to be Consul-General of Mexico. This is the place held by the officious J. W. Porch.

On Saturday the President sent to the House seven vetoed private pension bills.

The House on Wednesday, by a vote of 115 to 136 (not the necessary two-thirds), refused to overrule the President's veto of the bill granting a pension to Carter W. Tiller. Twenty Democrats voted with 116 Republicans against the President's course.

The House Committee on Invalid Pensions has reported adversely on the Senate bills granting pensions to Mrs Logan and Mrs. Blair, and favorably on the bill to pension Walt Whitman at the rate of $25 per month.

On Thursday the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill was reported to the House. The bill makes a total appropriation of $20,286,910, which is less than the appropriation for the current year by $418,545. The estimates aggregated $21,173,000. The number of surveyors-general, which is now fifteen, is reduced by the bill to eleven, and it is provided that on and after July 1, 1888, the office of Surveyor-General shall be abolished, and the records of the offices turned over to the Commissioner of the General Land Office, who is charged with the performance of all the duties now performed by the surveyors-general, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior. A clause provides that the appropriations for the Civil-Service Commission shall not be available while any rule of that Commission declares persons over forty-five years of age to be ineligible for appointment. The Committee also reduces the appropriation for travelling expenses of the Commission one-half.

In reporting favorably on Tuesday Mr. W. R. Cox's bill to increase the salaries of the Civil-Service Commissioners from $3,500 to $5,000, the House Committee on Civil-Service Reform says that when the act was passed it was regarded as merely tentative, and it was believed that the Commissioners' duties would be comparatively light. Civil-service reform has become, however, one of the fixed institutions of this country. The report continues: "All now agree that 'public office is a public trust,' and 'should be bestowed and exercised for the public good and not for private ends. Every intelligent man admits that the civil service depends upon the qualifications of the officer for the position he fills, and not the mere political opinions he may entertain. It is not intended to interfere with or destroy parties, all of which are believed to be essential to the faithful and honest administration of the Government. A public servant should be held to a faithful discharge of his public duty, and not held as a henchman to do dirty work. No reformer will dispense with political parties nor with their efficient organization for all legitimate purposes. It is a false assumption to claim that they have no higher aim or object than the mere fruits of office. The British civil service has been freed from partisan control, and yet no more bitter, active, or unrelenting political contest has been witnessed in that kingdom than was seen in their last election. That the public service has been purified and elevated by the efforts of the Civil-Service Commissioners, aided and sustained by the President, cannot be successfully denied. That the clerical service is hereby rendered more and more efficient is universally believed to be true. The Civil-Service Law is the great breakwater of many politicians, who employ it as an excuse for failure to secure positions for friends, and sometimes unjustly attack the law and those who execute it. As this reform has come to stay, it is highly important that the best talent should be placed at the command of the President in order to secure the services of such men as are willing to fill the office for a reasonable compensation, and not accept the position merely through the hope of filling it temporarily as a stepping stone to future preferment."

The Naval Committee of the House on Friday accepted without amendment the bill prepared by the sub committee appropriating $2,450,000 to begin the construction of the new cruisers, four gun-boats, and one torpedo boat for the navy.

The Senate on Wednesday passed, by 34 to 15, the House bill appropriating $10,000 (to be immediately available) for special distribution of seeds in the drought-stricken section of Texas by the Agricultural Department.

In the Senate on Thursday the resolution heretofore offered by Mr. Plumb (Rep., Kan.), calling on the Secretary of the Interior for information as to whether there is any rule of the Pension Office whereby any applicant for pension is denied a hearing by reason of being also a petitioner to Congress, was taken up. The discussion turned somewhat on the question of civil-service reform. On that point Mr. Saulsbury (Dem., Del.) said, that while he would not convert President Cleveland into a public butcher, decapitating every office-holder hostile to him, he would instruct him that it was a duty which he owed to himself, his Administration, the party which elected him, and the country which he served, to purge the departments of the men hostile to his Administration, and unless he did so he would not have a successful Administration.

The Senate passed on Friday, with only one nay, the bill reported from the Finance Committee to refund to the States and Territories the $20,000,000 collected from them under the Direct Tax Act of 1861. The Senate also disposed of the Beck bill in regard to members acting as railroad attorneys. The original Beck resolution was rejected—17 yeas to 36 nays—and the bill was then passed, 39 to 14, in the following shape: "That it shall be unlawful for any member of either house of Congress to accept employment as attorney-at-law, or payment of services of any kind, in opposition to the United States, in any case to which the United States may be a party, or in which its interests may be concerned, or from any railroad company, if such member shall have reasonable cause to believe that measures specially affecting the interests of such company are pending before Congress, or are about to be so pending during his term of office. Any person who violates the provisions of this act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and may be punished by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by fine not exceeding $500, or by both, in the discretion of the court." The nays were (Dems. in italics): *Call*, Cameron, Farwell, *Gray*, *Hampton*, McMillan, Mahone, Mitchell of Oregon, *Payne*, *Pugh*, *Ransom*, Sawyer, Stanford, and Teller.

The Senate on Monday, without division, passed the bill "to encourage the manufacture of steel for modern army ordnance, armor, and other army purposes, and to provide heavy ordnance adapted to modern army warfare," and the bill "to encourage the manufacture of steel for modern naval ordnance, armor, shafting, and other naval purposes, and to provide heavy ordnance adapted to modern naval warfare." These bills appropriate more than $21,000,000.

The Senate Committee on the Judiciary have changed the House joint resolution for an investigation of the Pacific Railroad accounts to the form of a bill. It provides for a sweeping investigation, during the progress of which the Funding Bill will not be pressed. It also provides for the protection of the interests of the Government by authorizing the President to redeem any of the first mortgage liens; and provides that, in future, 40 instead of 25 per cent. shall be paid to the Government. Mr. Hoar (Rep., Mass) reported the bill on Friday morning, and asked for immediate consideration. Mr. Hale (Rep., Me.) objected to the immediate consideration of the bill, and it therefore went to the calendar—Mr. Hoar giving notice that he would call it up at the first opportunity.

Secretary Manning has sent to Mr. Belmont, Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, a carefully prepared reply to the request of that Committee for his views with regard to the House and Senate retaliation bills, and for any suggestions he may desire to make. The Secretary proposes a bill giving the President power "to close, by a proclamation to that effect, all the ports of the United States against any and every vessel owned wholly or in part by a subject of her Britannic Majesty, and coming or arriving from any port or place in the Dominion of Canada or in the Island of Newfoundland, whether directly or having touched at any other port, excepting such vessel shall be in distress of navigation and of needed repairs or supplies therefor; and every vessel thus excluded from the ports of the United States that shall enter or attempt to enter the same, in violation of this act, shall, with her tackle, apparel, furniture, and all the cargo on board, be seized and forfeited to the United States, or the value thereof, to be recovered of the person or persons making or attempting to make entry." Also, power to forbid the importation of merchandise from Canada.

Treasurer Jordan admitted on Friday that Secretary Manning is to be the President and he (Jordan) is to be the Vice-President of the Western National Bank of the city of New York. The resignations of both officials are in the hands of the President, and will be accepted in due time.

A suit was begun in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia on Thursday to test the constitutionality of the Civil-Service Law.

In the joint ballot for United States Senator in the Indiana Legislature on Wednesday, Robinson, the Greenback-Labor man, voted for David Turpie (Dem.), giving him seventy-six votes, and he was declared elected. Harrison received seventy-four votes. The Republicans propose to make a contest. Mr. Turpie is a native of Ohio, but has spent the most of his life in Indiana. He has been twice elected to the Legislature, and has been Speaker of the House, Judge of the Common Pleas and Circuit Courts of the State, and filled fifty days of the time of J. D. Bright as United States Senator when the latter was expelled in 1863. Last year he was appointed United States Attorney for Indiana by President Cleveland.

The Supreme Court of Wyoming Territory on Thursday decided that the bill granting suffrage to women is unconstitutional. Women have been voting in the Territory since the act was passed by the Legislature of 1885.

In the New York Assembly on Wednesday the Judiciary Committee reported against the Kenny bill to repeal all the State civil-service laws. Mr. Kenny moved to disagree with the report and send the bill on its way to the Committee of the Whole. All the Democrats who voted, with the exception of Fitch of Green, Reeves of Suffolk, and Sheehan of Erie, voted

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against the adverse report, and therefore in favor of repealing the civil-service laws. The Republicans, including the Speaker, who usually refrains from voting, sustained the adverse report and the civil-service laws, the report being approved by a vote of 67 to 30. The Republicans are jubilant, claiming that the vote sustains their charge that Democratic support of civil-service reform has been a deception.

One of the most terrible railroad accidents in the history of this country occurred on the Vermont Central Railroad, not far from White River Junction, on Saturday morning about 2:15 o'clock. The Montreal express left the track on a bridge sixty feet above the river. Two sleepers and two ordinary passenger cars were hurled into the frozen river. Thirty-four are known to be dead, and of these fifteen have been identified, two are missing, and there are thirty-six injured. It is believed that the breaking of an axle of the rear car caused the accident

FOREIGN.

The war scare continued on Thursday. London and Paris markets were depressed almost to a panic. The Russian Government issued an order forbidding the exportation of horses.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* semi-officially said on Thursday, that the panics on the Paris Bourse were due more to local causes and an excess of speculation than to external influences. This is interpreted as an attempt to relieve the German press from the appearance of giving provocation and exciting alarm.

All European markets were stronger on Friday. A despatch from Berlin asserted that Prince Bismarck had assured the Ambassador of a friendly Power that Germany would on no account attack France.

It was credibly reported in London that M. Herbette, the French Ambassador at Berlin, and Count Herbert Bismarck met on Friday and exchanged peaceful assurances. M. Herbette, it is said, asserted that there would be no movements of French troops without the consent of the Council of State, while Count Herbert stated that the 72,000 reserves would return to their homes as soon as they had been drilled; that 20,000 more would be called out, drilled, and sent back to their homes, and that then there would be no more levies.

The European markets continued stronger on Saturday, and on Monday, but on Tuesday closed rather flat, owing to unfavorable news from Berlin.

The Vienna correspondent of a London paper asserts that the German Bundesrath has actually discussed the proposal for a loan of 300,000,000 marks, and says that the fact that the proposal was not submitted to the Landtag shows that the situation has improved.

The main subject of discussion in political circles at Berlin on Saturday was the publication of the much-talked-of manifesto of the Pope in favor of Bismarck's demands from the Reichstag. It appeared in the form of a despatch from Cardinal Jacobini to the Pope's Nuncio at Munich. It is considered in Berlin by members of the Liberal and Centre parties as not likely to benefit the Government much, because, in the first place, it conveys only a desire, and not a command, of the Pope; and, secondly, because the so-called Church question is an issue between Prussia and the Pope, with which the German Empire as such has nothing whatever to do. It is even confidently expected by the Opposition that this direct interference by the Pope in domestic politics will react strongly against the Government.

Dr. Windthorst, the leader of the Centre (Catholic) party in the German Reichstag, in a political address delivered in Cologne on Sunday, took an attitude of opposition to the Pope's recently expressed wish that the Centre party adopt a policy of conciliation on the Septennate Bill in order to enable the Pope to meet the views of Prince Bismarck, and secure improvement in the position of the Papacy. Dr. Windthorst said that the Pope's advocacy of the Septennate Bill was independent of the merits of the measure, and arose from reasons of expediency and from political considerations. If it had been possible to comply with the wishes of his Holiness, Dr. Windthorst said, the Centre party would have done so, but nobody could accomplish the impossible. The Pope would not be displeased with his faithful sons in Germany for their refusal to comply with his political wishes, when he had closely examined into the reasons which impelled them.

The tone of Lord Hartington's Unionist manifesto, delivered on Wednesday night at Newcastle, was not, despite a certain doggedness, calculated to spread much enthusiasm among his followers. "I hoped," he said, "when we went into this struggle that we all counted the cost. If not, I hope we shall count the cost now; for unless we are prepared to maintain our position and continue our sacrifice to carry through our policy to the end, I, for one, say it would be better that we should retire at once than needlessly and fruitlessly to prolong a struggle which we have not the courage and resolution to carry to the end." He hinted to Mr. Chamberlain that the latter was going too fast, and declared his own intention to drop ordinary party questions while the Irish question was unsettled. The first duty of the Government, he said, was to suppress anarchy and contempt of law. Conferring powers upon extended municipalities of the United Kingdom, and emigration and migration, were the only definite measures of relief he suggested.

In the House of Commons on Friday Mr. Cremer, Radical, moved an amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech, demanding an immediate recall of all the British forces in Egypt. Sir Wilfrid Lawson, Radical, in seconding the motion, said: "We have raised the funded debt of Egypt from £90,000,000 to £100,000,000, slaughtered many thousands of the natives, crippled the National Chamber, bombarded the principal city of the country under circumstances of the greatest horror, increased taxation, promoted horrible debauchery in the capital, sown dissensions between the Khedive and the people, and crushed out the first little sparks of independence that had been seen in Eastern nations for ages past." W. H. Smith defended the Government's policy. He said the evacuation of Egypt by England would throw that country into a state of anarchy. Mr. Cremer's amendment was rejected by a vote of 263 to 97.

In the House of Commons on Monday night, after moving his amendment, Mr. Parnell made an impressive speech. It is generally admitted that he succeeded in convicting the Government of flagrant inconsistency in the conduct of Gen. Sir Redvers Buller and Judge Curran, who brought pressure to bear on the landlords while prosecuting the Nationalists' own more successful method of the "plan of campaign." "Dynamite," said Mr. Parnell excitedly, shaking his hand over the heads of his followers at the Government bench, "was repeatedly exploding in the crowded streets of your city. Your public buildings were also threatened. Attempts were made to destroy them. Even in this House, Ministers were not safe from violent attacks and attempts at assassination. After all these terrible events, after all this loss of life, some upon the scaffold and many more victims of the wild justice of revenge, after all this peril to your citizens pursuing their lawful occupations in the streets, after all this danger to your most distinguished Ministers, what was the result? The Tory Government came into office and abandoned coercion." This was the most successful point of the speech, and was received by the Liberals and Parnellites with prolonged cheers. Mr. Gladstone promises to support the Parnell amendment

The Parnellites will oppose in Parliament all projects relative to the liquor traffic in Ireland, on the ground that the question should be reserved for an Irish Parliament.

Mr. Chamberlain, in an interview on Monday with delegates from the Scotch crofters, offered, in the event of the Scotch members approving his taking the lead of the party, to introduce a crofter bill in Parliament. The Gladstonian Radicals, jealous of Chamberlain's interference, oppose his assumption of the lead of the Scotch Radicals. Mr. Morley declares in favor of Chamberlain, on the ground that his advocacy of the crofters' cause is a step towards complete reunion of the Liberal party. The Parnellites are incensed. The Scotch members will hold a formal conference before deciding the leadership question.

Lord Randolph Churchill has gone to Algiers with a view to restoring his health. He expects to be absent a month.

The Earl of Dunraven, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, has resigned. This is not of much importance except as one more shot fired at the Tory Government in a critical time.

Peter Rylands (Liberal-Unionist), Member of Parliament for Burnley, is dead. He was born in 1820.

Twenty moonlighters raided the farmhouses near Mill Street, County Cork, on Friday, and seized a number of guns, discharging the weapons to intimidate the farmers. They also sheared the hair off the heads of four girls who had disobeyed the League's order not to speak to policemen.

The determined action of the British Government, in dispensing with the services of the Cunard and White Star Companies unless they would consent to terms having no savor of monopoly about them, has now produced its fruits in the alacrity with which the chief companies have coöperated with the Post-office in devising the new service. In future the White Star Line will take the mails Wednesdays, the Cunard Line Saturdays, the North German Lloyd Thursdays, and the Inman Line for those who wish on Tuesdays. Thus the mail for New York will leave on four days in the week, and the advantages of the Queenstown and Southampton routes will be equally secured.

Henry M. Stanley embarked from Suez on Sunday on the steamer *Navarino* for Zanzibar direct.

The Egyptian Government has raised the blockade of the Sudan, and commerce with that region has been reopened.

There was a sensation in the Italian Chamber of Deputies on February 1, when Premier Depretis announced that three companies of the Italian troops, engaged in the occupation of the region around Massowah, Africa, had been almost annihilated in a fight on January 25 and 26, near Saati. They were attacked by the Abyssinians. The Chamber at once passed a bill appropriating $1,000,000 to send reinforcements to Massowah.

The *République Française* on Thursday published a despatch from Suez which said that the Abyssinians captured all the guns of the Italians; that of the 480 Italians in the fights not more than 50 escaped, and that the Italians have evacuated all their advanced positions, and the Abyssinians have carried the first line of the Italian entrenchments around Massowah.

Prime Minister Depretis of Italy announced to the Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday afternoon that the entire Cabinet had resigned. This was owing to the storm raised by the Massowah massacre of Italian troops, and by the doubtful position of the Cabinet in Parliament. It is believed that M. Depretis will be asked to form a new Ministry. Count di Robilant, Foreign Minister, absolutely refuses to enter it. This is considered a bad augury for the preservation of the peace of Europe.

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"THE LABOR PROBLEM."

SOME weeks ago we invited our reforming friends who were interested in the labor problem, to give us some account of the legislation which, in their opinion, would solve it. We were accordingly soon deluged with lists of bills which would put an end to the workingman's discontent. Several of our correspondents relied mainly on a lowering of the tariff, which they said was the workingman's worst grievance. Others recommended bills to shorten the hours of labor, bills to abolish the labor of minors, bills to establish Government savings banks, bills to make employers liable for injuries sustained by employees in the performance of their duty, bills to improve tenement-houses and factories, bills to supply free music, bills to establish free libraries and reading-rooms, bills to make arbitration compulsory in labor disputes, bills to increase the number of holidays, and so on. None of these suggestions, however, so far as we could make out, came from real manual laborers, or, in other words, from the persons who make the labor problem and keep it going, and whose discontent furnishes the text for most of the sermons and articles about labor. They came from amateurs—that is, from people whose minds play round the labor problem, and are frightened by it, and think that if the people who do not work with their hands do not provide a solution speedily, something dreadful will happen—something in the nature of a social cataclysm or earthquake—which will knock our civilization into ruins.

We paid very little attention to these suggestions, because we knew very well that they did not contain or even touch the labor problem as Labor understands it, and that every one of the proposed bills might be passed, not only without diminishing the prevailing discontent of the manual laborers, but without preventing its rapid increase. We had not very long to wait for a confirmation of this view of them. On Saturday last, Labor's head man in this city—that is, the Master Workman of District Assembly 49, who has been directing the strikes—went before the Assembly Committee now sitting here, and described the labor problem as Labor sees it. When asked to explain strikes against employers of whom there was nothing to complain, he said these suspensions of industry were simply intended to "enlighten the public as to the wrongs of the strikers, and bring the pressure of public opinion to bear on the employers," and were not really strikes against individuals, but "against a general system." Being asked how such "a movement was brought about, and who could declare it off," he said it could only be declared off by "the yielding of the companies." Being asked for a more general and radical solution of the labor difficulty, he said—

"That he believed the Government ought to own all factories, and, ultimately, all great stores for the sale of merchandise; when that time came the farmer would no longer own his land; all land, all property of every kind, would be owned by the Government for the common good and common use.

"Mr. Russell — In other words, the Henry George theory.

"Witness — The Henry George theory improved.

"Mr. Quinn then said, in reply to Mr. Hogeboom, that he believed wealth would be more equitably distributed under the system of Government ownership which he advocated, and that therefore the present friction between labor and capital would disappear."

Now, it makes no difference whether Quinn is simply an ignorant man, or a visionary man, or a knavish man. The important fact for our purpose is, that he is the official head of the organized Labor in this city, and sets on foot and directs such attacks on property and order as the strikes either are from the beginning or speedily become. Consequently, his notion about the labor problem is probably that of the great body of his followers and confederates. In other words, he represents the people whom so many politicians, and ministers, and philanthropists are trying to appease, some by silly and hypocritical talk and legislation, and some by predictions of great calamities in case Labor is not satisfied. We here see that what the Quinns have in their minds when they strike is simply the transformation of American society into a huge labor union, in which the Master Workman and the Walking Delegate would have the key of the general storehouse, and the distribution of the food and clothing, and the assignment of our daily tasks.

Of course we have not so low an opinion of American intelligence as to discuss this man's sociology or political economy seriously. We take it up simply to point out the folly of supposing that the men who are engaged in keeping the labor agitation on foot in this country, will be appeased or silenced by the little palliatives in the way of sanitary legislation which our reformers suggest, or the little bits of quackery with which our political demagogues seek to cajole them. They have a large, passionate, very ignorant, and, through their ignorance, very discontented and uncomfortable constituency, mostly of foreign birth and training. These have in one way or another been persuaded that only manual laborers create anything or do any work, and that everything which sustains human existence and makes it commodious or graceful belongs to them of right; that all who think, or plan, or calculate, or direct, or record, or invent, or discover are mere useless excrescences. They care nothing for political freedom, and, in so far as they can, themselves live under a despotism. They are a small minority of the population, but, by rigid organization and by their power of causing great temporary inconvenience, they deeply impress the imagination of politicians, ministers, philanthropists, and sociological speculators and professors, and cause displays of gross cowardice among business men, whose operations they for brief periods check or interfere with. They have, in fact, succeeded in producing a state of things in some of our cities very like that which was produced at the North before the war by the vigor and audacity of the slaveholders. The slaveholders filled our pulpits and counting-houses with "doughfaces," or "Northern men with Southern principles," who were ready to say anything, believe anything, or submit to anything which would prevent "the South" from getting angry, or make it stay in the Union. But "Labor," like the South, is made only the more turbulent and unreasonable by seeing the fear it inspires and the concessions it can exact.

The duty of intelligent Americans is, however, in no way changed by the follies, or exactions, or delusions of strikers. Good citizens are bound, under all circumstances, and no matter at what sacrifice of comfort, to see that their Government and civilization suffer no damage; that the precious union of liberty and order which has come down to them from former generations as a sacred trust is delivered to posterity without either "shortage" or conversion. It ought not to make any difference to them whether it is assailed by ignorance at home or force from abroad. Their business is to protect it against assaults of every kind from every quarter, and to let it be known from the first minute that they will protect it to the last extremity.

ARBITRATION.

THE Chamber of Commerce last week discussed the pending strikes, but without any better result than a reference of the whole subject to the Executive Committee, with power to call a public meeting or take such action as might seem best. The discussion which preceded this rather lame conclusion was marked by the vagueness which characterizes the utterances of nearly everybody who opens his mouth about the labor question. Mr. Henry wanted prompt arbitration, by the Chamber of Commerce, forgetting that there can be no arbitration unless the parties to the dispute not only agree to submit to arbitration, but agree on the questions on which the arbitrator is to pass. A great many people propose arbitration in all these troubles, as if it was a remedy which could be applied by the first bystander, like brown paper and vinegar, without the assistance or consent of the belligerents. Another proposal was made by Mr. James H. Seymour as a substitute for Mr. Henry's plan, which had really a touch of humor in it. He wanted a public meeting of merchants and manufacturers to discuss the situation, and offered Steinway Hall free of charge for this purpose. When one considers the kind of discussion of any subject which takes place at a public meeting, and remembers how much talk in "halls" has been already expended on the relations of capital and labor, one can hardly read this without a smile.

What makes such talk as this on the part of business men all the more extraordinary is, that the nature and origin of the strikes here and in Jersey City are probably understood more clearly and widely than any other subject of the day. There is probably hardly a man in the community who does not know more about them than he knows about any other matter except his private and personal affairs. The pretence in which so many orators and writers indulge, that there is something mysterious and incomprehensible about the strikes, and that what is needed is investigation and discussion, is really, at this time of day, somewhat lamentable. It would, for instance, be a waste of time to occupy a hall and use a large quantity of gas in examining the causes of the strike on the coal wharves in New Jersey, when we all

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know that it was begun by a dispute about wages. On this the men of the Philadelphia and Reading line struck, and the men of the other companies struck in sympathy with them. Now, does any business man in this city deny the right of any employer to offer lower wages if he thinks best? Does anybody deny the right of the employee to refuse the offer and leave his service? Does any business man maintain that an employer ought to be compelled to pay higher wages than he thinks his business will allow, or that an employee ought to be compelled to accept lower wages than he thinks his services are worth? None that we have ever heard of. Would the public meeting in Steinway Hall propose a legal rate of wages to be fixed by some public officers, like the members of the Board of Arbitration? We presume not. Every member of the Chamber of Commerce knows that this would be an impracticable and indeed silly proposal, even if it were not unconstitutional.

What makes the matter still more unfit for public discussion is, that it does not appear that the business of the coal companies would suffer in any way from their course about wages, were it not for the violence of the strikers. It is not the conduct of the companies in lowering or refusing to advance wages which is causing the scarcity of coal in this city. Every member of the Chamber of Commerce knows this well. It is the violence and intimidation practised by the strikers towards the men who seek to take their places on the coal wharves. Nobody disputes the right of the strikers to strike, and to persuade other men in the same calling to strike along with them. Every man has the right to strike; and it is his duty to strike if he thinks his interests will be served by so doing, and to make combinations for striking purposes. It is not these things which the companies are resisting, or which are causing the disturbances from which the trade and industry of the city are suffering. It is the assertion by the strikers of the right to remain in their places on their own terms—that is, the right to be employed at wages fixed by themselves by persons who do not wish for their services on any terms. They not only assert this right, but they assert it by force of arms—that is, by hanging about the premises of their former employers, and attacking or menacing with sticks, and stones, and firearms other workingmen who do not agree with them about wages and do not belong to their combination. Were these attacks and threats abandoned, there would be no labor trouble in this city to-day, no scarcity of coal, and no shutting down of factories, and no need of any meeting in Steinway Hall, except a meeting to encourage the police in defending property and order, and to proclaim anew the right of every American citizen to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. As long as business men, clergymen, professors, and politicians persist in not seeing this aspect of the case, and in making believe that the whole laboring population is engaged in these strikes and riots, when, as everybody knows, it is a minority which carries them on, and it is greedy and worthless adventurers, in nine cases out of ten, who get them up, they will continue to cause grave social perturbation and disorder.

We have for the sake of simplicity assumed in these remarks that all the labor disputes now pending are disputes between employers and persons who have actually been in their employment, about matters arising in the conduct of their common business. All that we have said would of course have been greatly strengthened by a review of the complications the Knights of Labor have introduced into these quarrels by making men employed in one shop, factory, or wharf, who have no grievance at all, strike in aid of other strikers in other shops, factories, or wharves, with whom they have not perhaps a single interest in common. This programme, if successful, would make each employer responsible for the doings or troubles of every other employer in the country, or, in other words, add enormously to those risks of his business—already numerous enough—over which he has not and cannot have any control. Will any member of the Chamber of Commerce say that business could, in this or any other city, be carried on profitably and safely under such a system controlled by men like the "Master Workmen" and "Walking Delegates"? Why, if submitted to, its effects would be very like those of an arrangement for having the city visited at uncertain intervals by two or three Western tornadoes every year. It cannot be submitted to. It must be resisted and overthrown, at whatever present cost. Of course resistance to it causes loss, just as resistance to invasion or riot causes loss; but the cost of resistance will not be one-hundredth part of the cost of submission.

VIRGINIA COUPON-KILLING.

A NEW coupon case which has just been decided in favor of Virginia by its Supreme Court of Appeals, is, of course, magnified by the repudiators into a great victory, although, in fact, it is much more like one of those successful skirmishes which sometimes brighten, to an inordinate degree, the spirits of an army in full retreat. Among the cases of 1885, decided unanimously by the Supreme Court of the United States against the pretensions of the State, was one to the effect that a fee for a business license was a tax, that a tender of coupons in payment of the fee would allow the party to proceed in his business as if he had paid money, and that a punishment by fine was unconstitutional and could not be imposed. To creep around this decision the Assembly passed a law March 4, 1886, that all coupons offered in payment of business licenses must be verified by a jury, and made it an indictable offence to do business without a license.

It is this law which the Virginia Court of Appeals has sustained, and which Judge Bond has just pronounced unconstitutional, and it therefore becomes necessary to consider the decisions in two aspects, first, whether, if the law be sustained by the United States Supreme Court, it will effect its purpose, and, second, whether it is likely to be sustained. It will be noticed that the law is a return to the miserable chicanery of the Riddleberger law of January 14, 1882. The State, in other words, has given up the fight on total repudiation, and has once more fallen under the proud banner of its present Senator. Experience showed that the Riddleberger law was such an ineffective "coupon-killer" that law after law was passed to do the work it failed to do. The truth of the matter is, that although the Riddleberger law does lessen the value of the coupons, it does not benefit the State. Coupons under it are not as valuable as money for paying taxes, because the person who uses them must go through intricate legal proceedings. But ultimately they come to the State at their full face value. Thus both sides lose, the loss accruing partially to the bondholders, who sell the coupons at a low rate, and partially to the State, who must pay lawyers for conducting the suit. Such will be the barren results of the law, if the decision of the State court upholding it be sustained, but it is hard to see how it can be sustained. The State judges evidently suppose that the pretension on the part of the State that the coupons are counterfeit, gives it a right both to require a deposit of money and to compel the taxpayer to await the finding of the jury. This leaves out of sight the common principles of tender. A owes B money. A tenders payment. B avers the money to be counterfeit. Can B force A to give him other money if A chooses to take the risk of its being counterfeit? Is there any magic in calling out fraud and counterfeit? On the contrary, if B believes the money offered to be counterfeit, let him refuse it, proceed against A by suit, and if A pleads tender and produces the money, then the jury can decide upon its genuineness. Or let B accept the money and sue A, and, when A pleads payment, show that the so-called payment was no payment because the money was counterfeit. Judge Bond says flatly that the coupons are as much legal tender as the greenback.

Meanwhile, the Virginia newspapers which advocate repudiation will probably continue to rejoice. But besides the fact that they have been driven back to the principles of the Riddleberger Act, which is ineffective to prevent coupons from flowing into the Treasury, and besides the fact that in all probability the Supreme Court will hold that the taxpayers need not pursue that act if they choose to rest on tender, there are indications in the realm outside of courts that the party of repudiation is losing its grasp. One of the leaders of the Democratic party has come out for compromise, not because of a change of heart, but upon the express ground that the attempts to repudiate are a failure. He accuses the wicked Republicans of using the coupons with the malevolent purpose of bringing the Democratic party into disgrace. He calls attention to the fact that the enemies of the "resistless Democratic party" made last fall a clear gain of five members of Congress, and that three papers of the State, championing the same "resistless party," are openly fighting the Riddleberger law. He says that the county treasurers have disobeyed the plain behests of the State law and received that "cut-worm" of the treasury, the coupon, and reminds the politicians that a cause once believed in by the whole people was, after four long years of struggle, utterly lost.

The *Virginian* of Lynchburg implores him to desist from such ill-timed remarks, and,

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imitating the protectionist fling that revenue reformers are recipients of British gold, says that one of the three papers mentioned is, "according to common report," in the interest of English bondholders. The *Virginian* further expresses astonishment that a tried leader of the Democratic party should act except in concert with the leading and directing minds of his party, and a few days later takes occasion to publish what it calls a sterling letter from the State Attorney-General, who says that he regards the situation as much more favorable to the State than at any time during the past year. It is not difficult to disbelieve so partial a witness, and the facts he cites to sustain his opinion may be demurred to. He says that the Virginia juries have refused to give punitive damages against the State officers who have proceeded to distrain for taxes in spite of tender of coupons. But as it seems that the taxpayer has his money refunded finally even if he does not get damages, it is clear that if coupons can be bought at a sufficiently low price, it will pay to use them without hope of damages; and when they get to the State, it should never be forgotten, they are paid in at their full face value, so that the State makes nothing, but only has the pleasure of gouging the bondholders. That these suits will continue upon this basis there can be little doubt. In the first place, they have continued; then it is not in human nature to refuse to make money legally because others cry traitor; and, last of all, the Attorney-General's perfervid appeal to taxpayers not to use coupons must call to mind *Bob Acres's* excited asseveration, "We will not run."

RHODE ISLAND POLITICS.

THE Constitution of Rhode Island differs from that of every other State in the Union in that it provides for a discriminating qualification against American citizens who happen to be of foreign birth. That qualification consists of an ownership of real estate. The Constitution further provides for the payment of a registry tax as a prerequisite to the exercise of the suffrage by any voter who does not pay a tax on personal property. The peculiar legislation upon the statute-books under the latter clause has produced a state of things by which, for many years past, the political control of the State has been in the hands of a plutocracy, which has been annually in the habit of selling the Governorship and the United States Senatorships to those men who have had the means and the willingness to pay the whole of the registry tax due from Republican voters; the remarkable fact being that the registry voter has always, for some reason, deemed himself under an obligation to vote according to the instructions of that person who has paid his tax for him. Possibly the local bosses have seen to it that none but servile voters were duly qualified, or at any rate have seen to it that all persons upon whose votes they could surely rely were duly registered and their taxes paid.

This condition of things has been well known. It culminated two years ago in the nomination of a man whose sole qualification for Governor is that of great wealth, for up to that time he had never held any office in Rhode Island, had not been specially identified with any of its interests, owned no property in it but that which he occupied as a residence in summer, and was not, in fact, in any proper sense a Rhode Islander. Such a selection obviously would not have been made had it not been for the fact that the persons whose purses were available for the purchase of the Republican registry vote, who were actual Rhode Islanders, had been exhausted. At that juncture it happened that no Rhode Island citizen able to afford the necessary sum of money wanted the place, and so it was sold to Mr. G. P. Wetmore of New York, who became Governor of the State in the spring of 1885. The same operation was performed with this gentleman in 1886, and, coincidently with his second election, there was also elected a General Assembly the like of which for corruption and for misconduct of every description has not been seen or known in the State.

On the same day on which the members of this body were elected, the advocates of constitutional prohibition succeeded in capturing the State for an amendment to the Constitution prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors. It is quite fair to say that the popular vote in favor of this amendment would not have been secured but for the general feeling that no honest effort had ever been made, in any part of the State, to enforce the laws regulating the sales of liquor which had been previously on the statute-books. The vote was a mere expression of popular discontent with the enforcement of those laws, and the General Assembly thus elected thereupon proceeded to make all the use it possibly could of this fundamental change in the law for its own profit and that of its fellows. It adopted legislation ostensibly for the enforcement of the prohibitory amendment, and by that legislation established the office of Chief Constable to enforce the law. It also organized a large number of district courts throughout the State, the ostensible object of which was to administer the prohibitory law, and thereupon proceeded to fill all the offices thus created either with members of its own body or with persons in active sympathy and coöperation with it. Chas. R. Brayton, who had been Postmaster of the city of Providence and compelled to resign in consequence of serious defalcations in his money accounts with the Government, amounting to some $30,000, and who had been for many years the most corrupt and notorious Republican boss in the State, manipulating the bosses of both parties at will in the Republican interest, was elected to the office of Chief Constable, with a salary of $3,000 a year and all his travelling expenses paid.

Members of the General Assembly were elected by that body to fill almost all the offices of judges and clerks of the district courts, at salaries which, in this small State, are considered very large. There is nothing in the Constitution of Rhode Island which prevents the members of the General Assembly from holding another State office, and therefore these men still continue as members of the General Assembly. This transaction is what has been known as the "Newport May Deal," and it produced an emphatic and weighty protest from a very large wing of the Republican party (by which we mean that portion of it which remained loyal after the nomination of Mr. Blaine), including the Providence *Journal* and other influential Republican newspapers. This wing of the party has continued ever since to wage war upon all those persons who were concerned in the deal, and we think it may be safely assumed that there is but little probability that any amalgamation between the two wings can be effected.

In the meantime the Democrats of the State, combining with another party known as the "Equal Rights" party, formed for the purpose of securing such changes in the Constitution of the State as will place all American citizens on the same footing, without discrimination, and abolish the corruption arising from the manipulation of the registry taxpayers, as above described, has consolidated itself for a grand effort to secure control of the State. Not since 1842 has the party in opposition to Republican rule been so well organized. Its preliminary efforts for the coming spring canvass, in the way of registering its voters and in assisting in the paying up of their registry taxes, have been greater even than in any Presidential year. Complete harmony exists between all sections of the party and also between it and the Equal Rights party.

The Republican leaders, on the other hand, are introducing resolutions in the General Assembly looking to the adoption of amendments to the Constitution having for their object the remedy of the evils complained of; but such amendments under the present Constitution cannot be adopted in a shorter period of time than two years, and will require a majority vote of three-fifths in their favor. The Republican doctrine in the State is, that the Constitution cannot be altered in any way except by the process of amendment. On the other hand, the Democratic and Equal-Rights doctrine is, that remedies can be applied by the calling of a Constitutional Convention, which affords a speedier and shorter method than that which is suggested by Republican leaders, since a constitution framed by a constitutional convention will require the vote of only a majority of the electors of the State, and can be acted upon by a vote of the people in a less period of time than, by the terms of the present Constitution, any amendment can be. The issue, then, in the coming spring campaign is a plain one: Shall the General Assembly call a Constitutional Convention? All Democrats and all Equal Rights men are agreed upon the changes required in the present Constitution. Many Republicans assent to those changes. The question is, then, one simply of method as between these persons. Shall it be done by means of a convention, or shall it be done by amending the Constitution? The large body of the Republican party denies the necessity of any change.

There is no disputing that the spring canvass, which terminates on April 6, on which date a complete State ticket, all the members of both branches of the General Assembly and the Congressman in the Western District, will be elected, will be the most important in the history of the State since 1842. It ought to command national attention, for the questions presented by it are of national interest, far exceeding in importance the size of the State and the influence which it possesses in the body politic. Large numbers of conservative citi-

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zens, hitherto opposed to the abolition of the discriminating clause in the Constitution of Rhode Island, will be found either heartily in favor of the changes proposed or else passively submitting to those changes, having discovered that the net result of the existence of these discriminations in the Constitution has not been in favor of political virtue, or the absence of the corruption which exists in many quarters in which no suffrage discrimination is made. For, after all, the best methods of government can be best proved by results. If discriminating suffrage qualifications are productive of corruption equally with a suffrage which does not discriminate, then wherein lies the advantage of the discrimination? It is quite safe to assume that a large mass of voters cannot so readily be purchased as a small one. It is not believed that the canvass will proceed on exactly the same party lines as those upon which the Presidential contest of 1884 did. Some Independents who supported Cleveland will be opposed to the Democratic party, though not many. On the other hand, it is quite certain that all the Democrats who supported Mr. Blaine will be found again in the ranks of their old party, and added to them will be a large section of the Republican party which supported Blaine, and which now realizes that fundamental changes are necessary in order to bring the State to a condition of political honesty. The Democratic party is fully determined to have no one on its ticket in any town or city, or on the State ticket, who is not of reputable character. It will seek to find out its best men as candidates for all offices, and personal interests will in the main yield to the success of the principles which are at stake.

LINEN PAPER VS. COTTON PAPER.

By dint of frequent repetition, the statement that two kinds of paper, distinguished as cotton paper and linen, or, as it is often called, rag paper, were in common use in Europe from a very early period, has gradually come to be generally accepted as true by palæographers and antiquarians. Upon equally good authority it is commonly believed that, while cotton paper was introduced into Europe by the Arabs in the seventh or eighth century, linen (or rag) paper was a European invention of much later date. But the time and place of the invention of linen paper, notwithstanding the long and learned controversies of the last century, have remained shrouded in mystery; nor does there seem to be any immediate prospect of arriving at a definite conclusion concerning these points. In the light of recent discoveries, however, the main question at issue, the comparative antiquity of cotton and linen paper, is in a fair way soon to be solved, if indeed we have not already before us evidence amply sufficient to enable us to reach a final decision, and a decision in direct opposition to the current belief.

The question is one of long standing, and by Mabillon, the founder of the science of palæography, Montfaucon, Tiraboschi, and other scholars, it was earnestly discussed; but inasmuch as no definite rules could be laid down for distinguishing with certainty cotton from linen paper, the discussion, which was characterized by much vehemence of language and a lavish display of learning, seemed likely to be prolonged indefinitely, with little probability of arriving at any satisfactory conclusion. At last, in 1762, prizes were offered by the Royal Society of Göttingen, and by Gerard Meerman of Rotterdam, for the oldest genuine specimens of linen paper, in hope of thus bringing to light some positive evidence as to the date of its invention or introduction. Many specimens of ancient paper manuscripts from Germany, Italy, Spain, etc., were submitted to the committee intrusted with the award. After a long and careful examination of these manuscripts the committee reported, as the result of their investigations, that no evidence had been produced of the use of linen paper before the end of the thirteenth or the beginning of the fourteenth century, while cotton paper appeared to have been used in Europe as early as the beginning of the seventh century, thus deciding the question in favor of cotton paper. Linen paper they held to be a later European invention, but were unable to decide, from the evidence before them, whether it was first manufactured in Italy or in Germany.

It must be borne in mind, however, that the tests upon which the committee relied to distinguish the two varieties of paper were extremely vague and indefinite, being based almost solely upon the external characteristics of the paper, such as softness of surface, flexibility, thickness, color, etc. Indeed, Meerman, who was himself one of the judges, frankly admits that, unless some chemical test can be found by which to determine with certainty the actual constituents of the paper, he has no hope that the time and place of the invention of linen paper will ever be discovered. Bodmann, a later investigator, who made a careful study of the question, also declared that the characteristic differences between cotton and linen papers could not be detected by the unaided senses of sight and touch, and insisted that recourse must be had to the action of fire and water in order to determine the character of the paper with any degree of certainty. Tests of this nature, however, not only proved to be inadequate to the purpose, but were evidently out of the question in the case of valuable and important manuscripts of great antiquity, these being the very ones the character of which it was most desirable to determine. Still, these later investigations, as far as they went, appeared to confirm the conclusions of Meerman and his associates, and, in the absence of any more satisfactory tests which could be applied, these conclusions came to be generally accepted, and since the beginning of this century the question seems to have been looked upon as practically, if not absolutely, settled in favor of the greater antiquity of cotton paper. De Vinne, indeed, in his 'Invention of Printing,' is inclined to doubt the ability of any antiquary to distinguish between cotton and linen paper, and maintains that the peculiarities of the so-called linen and cotton papers are due more to their distinct methods of manufacture than to the material used. In his opinion, the cotton paper of the antiquarians is merely paper the pulp for which was prepared by grinding the raw material, while the linen paper is paper made from pulp which had been beaten by pestles and stamps, and in which the fibres were rather bruised than cut, as they would be if the pulp were ground.

Meanwhile, it had been found that under the microscope the fibres of linen, or flax, are seen to consist of straight, elongated, cylindrical filaments, or tubes, with comparatively thick walls; these filaments are stiff, tough, and elastic, and do not bind or twist together. The fibres of cotton, on the other hand, show themselves in the form of narrow, flat, transparent tubes with thickened edges, twisted several times upon themselves somewhat like a corkscrew, and readily interlacing one with another. Here, then, was the desired test for determining with absolute certainty the composition of any given specimen of paper, but, as Wattenbach remarked in 1871, the question seemed to have entirely lost its interest, and no attempt was made to reopen it until, in 1884, M. Briquet, a Swiss scholar, published an interesting account of some investigations he had been carrying on. He tells us that, in the course of some researches, undertaken for another purpose, among the Swiss archives, he was surprised to find that the oldest documents there preserved, when examined under the microscope, all proved to be on linen paper. He was thus led to doubt the accepted statements concerning the greater antiquity of cotton paper; and, in order to satisfy his doubts, he succeeded in obtaining, not without difficulty, from various Italian, French, and German archives, fragments of ancient paper manuscripts, ranging in date from the eleventh to the thirteenth century. These fragments, which, it must be remembered, were all considered by palæographical authorities as undoubted specimens of cotton paper, were then subjected to microscopical analysis, and it was found that not one of these so-called cotton papers contained cotton fibres. They all proved to be rag-papers consisting of linen or hemp fibres. Having thus found that the oldest specimens of so-called cotton papers which he had been able to procure are in reality linen papers, M. Briquet is of the opinion that there never was such a thing as cotton paper, and holds that the term cotton paper, when used by early writers, is not to be taken in its literal sense as indicating the composition of the paper, but as referring simply to one of its external qualities, its soft or cotton-like surface.

Without accepting all the conclusions reached by M. Briquet, it cannot be denied that he has proved beyond a doubt that linen paper has a much greater antiquity than any one had hitherto ventured to assign to it. And within the last few months additional evidence has been brought to light which not only confirms the statements of M. Briquet, but establishes the use of linen paper long before the eleventh century, the earliest date for which the Swiss scholar could obtain positive evidence of its use. The remarkable find of ancient manuscripts made a few years ago in Fayum is still fresh in the minds of scholars. The greater number of manuscripts then discovered, ranging in date from the first to the tenth century of our era, have since found their way to Vienna, and form what is known as the Archduke Rainer Collection. Though the papyrus manuscripts, which number upwards of 70,000, constitute the bulk of the collection, there are also many specimens of manuscripts on leather, parchment, and paper; of those on paper, 159 more or less complete manuscripts have been discovered. The latest of these dates from the year 953 A. D., while many are of the eighth century, and some, it is thought, will prove to be of still earlier date. The task of determining the composition of these papers by means of microscopical analysis was intrusted to Prof. Julius Wiesner of the Vienna University, who has lately published the results of his examination, and the most important of these may be briefly stated. He finds, contrary to the opinion of palæographers, who were inclined to consider these manuscripts as being on cotton paper, that all the Fayum papers are rag papers, and are composed chiefly of linen rags. Scattered throughout the mass of worn linen fibres, occasional traces of worn cotton fibres are found, indicating that the rags had been carelessly sorted, or perhaps not sorted at all, though it is evident that the raw material must have consisted almost entirely of linen rags; and so far from being an invention of the fourteenth century, it is now conclusively proved that rag or linen paper was known and in common use at least as early as the eighth century, and that in

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all probability it is not a European, but an Arabian invention.

The examination of these Fayum papers by Prof. Wiesner has also brought to light some interesting facts concerning the material used for sizing. It is frequently stated that the use of starch as a size for paper is a modern European practice, introduced after paper began to be made by machinery, and that the early papermakers used only a size made from glue or gelatine. But it is now found that, in these Fayum papers of the eighth century, starch was the material used for sizing, though whether it was wheat starch or barley starch has not been positively determined, but the probability is in favor of wheat starch.

IBSEN'S "SPECTRES."

BERLIN, January 22, 1887.

SOME six weeks ago the curiosity of the Berlin public was aroused by the announcement of a performance of Henrik Ibsen's domestic drama, "Spectres." This work of the Norwegian poet has made a deep impression in his native land, and attracted widespread attention in Germany. It has been on the répertoire of the Meiningen company for some time past. Towards the close of 1886 the singular statement appeared that the director of the Residenz Theatre of Berlin had obtained permission from the department of police to put the drama on the stage, on condition that it be given once only and for charitable purposes. This had the charm of the extraordinary about it, and those not acquainted with the piece hastened to inform themselves. It is not yet quite clear why these police precautions and conditions were found necessary, for the character of the play is by no means so alarmingly shocking or so dangerous to public morality as the zealots of the daily press have heated themselves into believing. At all events, the peculiarity of the circumstances helped to make this performance the dramatic event of the season. Cheap copies of the text were displayed in all the book-shops. Bill-posters kept the matter before the public, and the amusement columns bristled with "Spectres in preparation." Berlin was haunted.

An amateur rendering of the play took place on the 2d of January, and caused some comment, but the much anticipated professional performance came off at noon on the second Sunday of this year. It was held with "closed doors," the papers announced mysteriously—a thing usual enough at this season, to prevent draughts. The theatre was crowded. Comparatively few tickets reached the general public, the greater part having been disposed of before the opening of the box-office. The director informed me that some two hundred representatives of the German press were present. The audience was one of critical intelligence, and the presence of Henrik Ibsen himself gave the event still greater interest. His appearance on the stage at the close of the first act was the signal for most enthusiastic applause. After the second act this applause, though still hearty, seemed uneasy; the audience was nervous, and when the curtain fell on the last act, the tokens of approval were comparatively faint. But this very fact was partially a tribute to the dramatist's art. So completely does the deep gloom of the closing scene take possession of mind and mood, that clapping seems almost as much out of place as applause at a funeral, and the hands remain involuntarily at one's side. An outline of the play will make this effect intelligible.

The spectres with which Ibsen deals are not the goblins of Romanticism that flit by night and haunt the churchyard; they are far less innocent. They are, first of all, the spectres by which all society is haunted: the host of traditions, conventionalities, and prejudices, which, in the form of laws, systems of morality, venerable customs, religious and social observances, put restrictions upon each individual in the name of all. Or they are the revenge that society takes upon those who overstep the traditional bounds of what passes for morality. Or they are the sufferings of those who submit to the conventional requirements and struggle in a false cause. They are, last of all, and these the most ghastly of the spectres—they are the sins of the fathers that are visited upon the children. Such spectres haunt the luxurious home of the Alvings. More than twenty years before the opening of the play, Helena, the heroine, was married to the dashing young Lieutenant Alving. Her heart would have had it otherwise, but this was a brilliant match. Her mother was prudent, as the world goes, and had found a man to her turn. This was the first misleading spectre, and Helena's love for Pastor Manders was sacrificed to wealth and position. She was not long in discovering to what manner of man she was wed—a libertine of the lowest order, one that spared not the sanctity of his own home. Mrs. Alving had the choice between two spectres: obedience to the injunctions of established law and religion and a life with a libertine, or flight in defiance of what society enjoined and the pursuit of happiness elsewhere. There would be much to suffer in either case, but she chose the latter course and fled. Society proved too strong. It was to one she loved that she fled, but Pastor Manders was clergyman first and lover only in second degree. He was the representative of all that bore the name of law and order, social, moral, or religious. His brain was haunted by whole troops of these spectres, and, with a self-command of which he was not a little proud, he sermonized in the well-known terms: a wife's place is by her husband's side in prosperity as in adversity, to love, to honor, to obey, and the like. He prevailed. Mrs. Alving returned to her husband, who never learned of this flight.

The spectres of the stronger sort had triumphed, and, as is the case with every finer nature, Mrs. Alving caught the spirit of that noble enthusiasm with which one sacrifices self upon the altar of a high duty, even though the duty be a false one and misunderstood. With the resolution of a strong character, she assumed control of affairs. Her pride assisted her. She resolved that the world should never know that the wealth and luxury of the Alvings' home were the whitening of a sepulchre. She proceeded to build up a structure of deceit wherein her husband's excesses and her own misery were to be concealed. An accident gave her the upper hand over her husband. She discovered an affair of his—with her own waiting-maid. This discovery put the sceptre in Mrs. Alving's hand. She found a husband for her maid, and thus saved the girl's reputation. The daughter that was born passed for the child of the poor cabinet-maker, Engstrand. Some years later Mrs. Alving took this child, her husband's daughter, into her own home and cared for her. Lieutenant Alving, in the meantime, was raised to the position of Chamberlain (*Kammerherr*), but his excesses told upon his health. Mrs. Alving assisted him in his duties; did what his debauchery often rendered him unfit for; made herself the companion of his drinking bouts, that she might keep him at home; cared for him; shielded him. Zealously she watched the family honor and concealed her sufferings. A new incentive was given her, and a new hope. She became the mother of a son, but, with heroic self-sacrifice, sent him away from her when he was still but a child, that he might never suspect the truth about his father. Her letters nourished in him a filial reverence, as for an ideal. So much could love and resolution do. Alving remained unaltered to the end; his excesses caused his death.

After twenty years of married life according to society's prescription, Mrs. Alving is set free. She seems to have accomplished her purpose. The name of Alving is honored in the land, and she resolves to put the final stone to this structure of pious deceit by erecting an asylum to her husband's memory. A second motive moved her to this step. She devotes to this undertaking the whole of the original fortune with which Lieut. Alving had wooed and won her. Nothing but the after accumulations, which were due to her energy alone, shall reach her son. Pastor Manders has been intrusted with the management of the affair, and the asylum, now finished, is to be dedicated on the morrow. This is the situation at the opening of the play. Oswald Alving has returned from his Paris studio. Regine, in the bloom of young womanhood, holds the position her mother once had held. Her supposed father, a rascal of rare hypocrisy, is about to start a "sailors' home," the nature of which is sufficiently indicated by his anxiety to secure the services of a pretty girl like Regine for his enterprise. Regine has quite other hopes and aspirations. Pastor Manders comes to make the final arrangements concerning the asylum. It is his first visit since Alving's death, for this spectre-haunted clergyman has a wholesome regard for what people might say. Mrs. Alving's greeting is cordial and frank. Admirable is the art and tact with which the author now proceeds to develop before us the long story that has gone before. Amid Manders's interjections and occasional homilies, Mrs. Alving relates to him the whole story of her married life. The good man's wonderment has no end; he is especially amazed at the startling conclusions to which her experiences have led her. Their views have drifted wide apart during these years of trial. These scenes of narrative and explanation are all managed with the highest refinement of the dramatist's art. The characters are drawn in clear, unmistakable lines, with that inward contrast which the different life-experiences have made. The heroic liberal cast of Mrs. Alving—with that high calmness without coldness, that resignation without bitterness, with resolute will, and the indescribable patient tenderness of a mother's love—is one of the finest creations the domestic drama has ever produced. And then the good, spectre-haunted pastor, child-like and sincere, but credulous, strict, shrinking from all things new upon which old custom has not set its sacred seal, ever eager to admonish the erring and interpret the will of God—this, too, is masterly character-drawing.

From the entrance of young Oswald, a premonitory gloom pervades the play. He is inert; one sees that he is sparing himself. He throws a shadow of dead hopes, that gradually darkens into final night. He has lived among young artists in Paris, and knows the beauty of that free life there, where those who love may love and ask no priest's consent. That brightness and happiness he must exchange for a sunless life in Norwegian mists. The good pastor is beside himself with amazement and indignation, and does vigorous battle for his spectres; he sermonizes *ex officio et ex ignorantia*. But Oswald cannot bear the excitement of animated conversation, and goes into the adjoining room, where Regine is preparing the evening meal. Mrs. Alving listens patiently to the pastor's homilies; she professes complete agreement with the views of her son; she will devote her life to his happiness, and forget all else. The "long comedy" is now at an end. A chair is thrown over in the next room, and in a sharp whisper is heard, "Oswald, are you mad?" Spectres! It is that couple from the years gone by that haunt the house still and

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whisper there—children of one father! Manders sees all now. It is a masterpiece of explanation, and thus ends the first act.

The development is now more rapid. It is Mrs. Alving's turn to hear revelations as well as to make them, and this scene is one of torturing intensity. Hesitatingly, despairingly, Oswald discloses to his mother his terrible condition. His mental powers are broken, annihilated, he says; he shall never be able to work again nor take brush in hand; he dare not even think of his art. His physician has told him all; "the old cynic" said that the sins of the fathers would be visited upon the children. He feels this to be a slander on his father's memory, and yet the thought that he is himself to blame is torture. He turns to his mother with the sudden question, "What do you think of Regine? She is my only salvation." It is a trying moment for the mother. She seems to be compelled to a choice between destroying her son's ideal of his father and concealing the parentage of Regine. She feels that the time has come to put her principles resolutely into practice. Regine is summoned; she is expectant, half-triumphant, half-defiant; Oswald feels that a secret is being kept from him; Pastor Manders is petrified—he has a presentiment of the mother's purpose. Suddenly shouts are heard, and a red shimmer lights up the sky. The asylum is in flames. Manders was unwilling to have it insured, because insurance implied a lack of trust in God's gracious Providence. Here, too, a spectre had been at work. The conflagration closes the second act.

All is now ready for the catastrophe; the forces are all in motion. The last act is extremely painful. Oswald's exertions were more than his weak condition could endure. The mutual confessions are made complete. He has softening of the brain; the loss of his reason is imminent; it is the heritage of his father's excesses. This, too, his mother must confirm, and the ideal, which had cost twenty years of self-sacrifice and loving care to nourish, was destroyed with a word. In the presence of both, Mrs. Alving reveals the relationship between Regine and Oswald. The despicable character of the former now shows itself—this, too, perhaps inherited. She sees her hopes are vain, and she departs in wrath, with the expressed intention of taking after her mother. With her, Oswald sees his last hope depart. He had lost his reason once for a brief period, and, once more lost, it would be gone for ever. He carries poison with him; he may not need it for years yet, and life has not lost every charm, but when the moment comes it will come suddenly. Some one must be by to perform the labor of love and cut short the life of hopelessness and helplessness. In this sense Regine would have been his salvation. She would have done this for him from selfish motives, had she become his wife. All this he tells his mother, but it is more than a mother's love can promise. Gradually, in the course of this indescribably painful scene, one sees him sinking into that state of physical and mental helplessness which he describes. His muscles relax; his voice becomes toneless, at last inarticulate, and his face loses expression. His mother bends over him in the agony of despair; she feels convulsively for the phial, hesitates, struggles with herself, and stares at him in speechless suffering. The sun breaks from the clouds that have hitherto shrouded the Norwegian landscape, and "The sun, the sun!" are Oswald's last articulate words. The mother's struggle is left undecided, and the curtain falls upon one of the most harrowing scenes of the modern stage.

The acting of this drama left nothing to be desired. Every character came out with full effect, as Ibsen must have conceived it. Especially the heroic character of Mrs. Alving received all those touches of exalted strength and tenderness that make us understand how she could pass through what she has, and still be what she is. The light in which she is presented during the few hours of her final trials make all that she tells us of her past life credible and natural. It is a glorious creation, to which the critics of the press have done only half-justice.

Long articles appeared in all the papers, the opinions expressed varying all the way from violent condemnation to cautious praise. The most thoughtful and on the whole most favorable criticism appeared in the weekly *Nation*. Mr. Oscar Blumenthal pronounces the drama a very common hospital story, an anatomical study. "Écrasez l'infâme," cries the *Tägliche Rundschau*, and forbears to describe the play out of regard for the fine sensibilities of its female readers—mentioning, however, an easily obtainable edition of the work, so that these same readers may not be wholly disappointed. Others consider the drama an offence against public decency, and brush Ibsen aside as a mere Philistine. The motives in the work are declared to be pathological and not dramatic, and nearly all agree that the drama is not fit for the general stage or for the average audience. The majority of readers will probably acknowledge its unsuitableness for the daily répertoire, but the depth of thought and the consummate skill in the treatment raise the "Spectres" above all violent or contemptuous criticism. It must be admitted that the presentation of the diseased Oswald on the stage, with all that is thereby suggested, makes a disagreeable and almost repulsive impression, and this quite apart from the uproar of objections that is raised by the upholders of sacred institutions. Inherited softening of the brain terminating in puling helplessness may be real enough, but it is not edifying, nor does it seem to be a proper subject for artistic treatment. A timely warning, however, comes from the *Nation* of Berlin against this hasty dogmatizing—art must this, and art must that—and calls attention to the press criticisms of a century ago, when objections were made to the early plays of Schiller very like those now being raised against the work of Ibsen. It will be long before the last word has been spoken, for we have to do with an important creation and a man of genius, and both can afford to wait for the time of clearer and calmer judgment. The wish has been expressed that a book be written concerning the philosophy of the "Spectres"; the material is certainly there, and the dialogue is full of suggestion for interesting speculation, ethical and sociological.

C. H. G.

Correspondence.

THE NEXT THING IN PENSIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A circular from a Washington attorney has come into my hands with the somewhat startling caption: "Mexican soldiers and their widows, over sixty-two years of age, are now entitled to U. S. pensions." Is this prophetic? Why not? The supply of domestic material for the pension roll is fast diminishing, and if we must go abroad to get rid of "the surplus," there are many reasons for beginning with Mexico, unless we can trade off pensions for mackerel privileges with the Kanuckers. * * *

Baltimore, February 4, 1887.

HOW TO COLLECT A LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The discovery of a method of collecting a library at absolutely no cost, with the additional advantage of tickling the *amour propre* of the authors by the most delicate of all flatteries, has been reserved to an ingenious Russian. The first step is indicated by his procedure with me in the following letter:

"Chemins de fer
Du Süd-ouest
de la Russie.

Direction Centrale.

"Kiew, November 20, 1886.

"Dear Sir: May I venture to ask as a great favor that you will be good enough as to send me a copy of your abridged edition of Mill's Principles of Political Economy for translating it into Russian.

"I am forced to solicit this favor by impossibility to obtain this book in this country.

"I am, dear sir,

"Yours most respectfully,

"Roman Plastounoff."

It seemed a little strange that a book supplied with illustrations and facts adapted to American classes should be chosen for translation into Russian. The usual inquiry was made of my publishers, with the result that a copy of the book was forwarded to the would-be translator. This then enabled him to display the second step in the process. Having made sure of the volume, the method adopted to escape from his situation may be recommended as a model of clever impudence. His reply to my note reads:

"Dear Sir: I have received your kind letter of 10th inst., which gave me a great pleasure, but I suppose there is some mistake, as I wrote you asking for a copy of your edition o Mill *without any intentions to translate this work in wholly into Russian*, but for some other purposes. It will give me a pity if you have understood me wrongly. Were I free to consult my own wishes I would gladly *accept your suggestion* in this respect, but, unfortunately, I am unable to do this at present, although, by your kind permission, in some future it will be practicable for me.

"However it might be, the book (which I hope will reach me in safety), which is valuable in itself, shall be doubly esteemed by me as a *gift from you*.

"Believe me," etc

The beauty of the method is seen by the light in which the author appears, not only as making the suggestion to the translator (the italics are mine), but as urging it upon a hard-worked and busy man. Such conduct, on the part of authors, is contemptible. The wickedness of such a course has so weighed on my mind that I am impelled to make a public confession as a warning to others. "It would give me a pity" to find that others were in the same box with me. In fact, the same method, as I found out accidentally, has been already tried on other writers.—Yours truly,

J. Laurence Laughlin.

Cambridge, Mass., January 31, 1887.

BRAZILIAN RIVER SOURCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On my return from a long journey into the interior of this country, my eye fell upon a notice in the *Nation* for July 22 of "An interesting account of the 'Physical Geography of Brazil,' given by Mr. James W. Wells, C.E., in the June number of the Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society." In speaking of Mr. Wells's account, you say: "In describing the river systems, he shows that northeastern Brazil is practically an island, the source of branches of the San Francisco and the Pará being in the same lake." You also say that, in the discharge of his professional duties as an engineer, Mr. Wells has travelled extensively in Brazil. It is hardly probable that as an engineer he was called upon to travel into the distant, wild region of country where lies the divide between the San Francisco and the Pará. Unless he did so, and verified his statement by actual observation, I must doubt it.

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I do so not at all to discredit Mr. Wells, but to discredit the story which he heard, until it is verified. I am led to do this because I had heard the same story here in Brazil about Lagoa Feia (Ugly Lake), situated near the town of Formosa, in the eastern part of the province of Goyaz. I think I once saw it laid down on a map as the source of two small streams, one running eastward into the San Francisco and the other northward into the Tocantins or Pará. In 1884 I had occasion to visit Formosa; I then saw the lake, and can testify that the story, so far as that lake is concerned, is a mistake. Formosa is 1,225 metres above the sea level. The water from the streets runs southeast into Lagoa Feia, which is about *eight miles distant*. A small stream (Rio Preto) runs from the lake on the south, and finally empties into the San Francisco, which empties into the Atlantic south of Cape St. Roque. A small creek, formed by the waters from the town and country eastward, runs into the lake on the north. About a mile north of the town the rains begin to be drained northward into the Tocantins, which empties into the Pará, or southern mouth of the Amazon, and it is of course several miles north of the town that any creek can be formed. About a mile west of Formosa the waters are drained southward into the La Plata. Formosa is, therefore, an interesting place, because it is situated at the only spot where the three great valleys of the Amazon on the north, the La Plata on the south, and the San Francisco on the east come together. Lagoa Feia does not, however, give rise to branches of the three great rivers (which is the exaggerated form of the story as I had heard it), nor even to two, as Mr. Wells heard; it lies entirely within the San Francisco valley. It is about one mile wide by two in length. There may be another lake northeast of Formosa, along the divide between the San Francisco and the Tocantins, which gives rise to branches of those two rivers. I made inquiries about that region while in Formosa, but heard nothing of such a lake.*

You make another statement, on the authority of Mr. Wells, which I am sure needs to be greatly modified. You say: "One can also go in a canoe from the Orinoco to the Plate with one carry of only a few hundred yards." One can go up the Orinoco to its source, and thence across to the Rio Negro through the Cassiquiare, and down to the Amazon. He can there ascend to the sources of the Plate by the Madeira, the Tapajos, or the Tocantins. But his carry across the country from the sources of these streams to the sources of the Plate (*i. e.*, between streams large enough to navigate loaded canoes), would be very much more than "a few hundred yards." Maury extends the distance to "a few miles" ('Physical Geography,' p. 198). This is true, if by "a few" we may mean about fifty.

There is no man living more competent to speak on this point than Gen. Couto Magalhães. One of the most learned and intelligent men in this country, he has been made President several times of the provinces of Goyaz, Pará, and Matto Grosso. He has frequently ascended the Plate and descended the Madeira, Tapajós, and Tocantins. Not only so: he has repeatedly travelled along the divide which separates the sources of those streams. Being thoroughly acquainted with the Indian language, of a fearless and untiring nature, he has spared himself no fatigue or pains in exploring the river systems along the great divide between the Amazon and the Plate. The towns of Goyaz and Cuyabá, capitals of the provinces of Goyaz and Matto Grosso, are both situated on that divide. In the discharge of his duties as President of those provinces, as well as General in the Paraguayan war, he frequently travelled between the two places. In his book, 'O Selvagem' (p. 149), he says that his travels through the interior amount to 4,500 leagues, or 18,000 miles (a Brazilian league is 6,600 metres). He then adds:

"In these journeys I have acquired geographical and topographical knowledge which is not entirely without interest, especially in regard to the divide, whose road [*i. e.*, the road from Goyaz to Cuyabá], being of recent date, has not yet been travelled by any geographer capable of giving a description of that immense territory which separates the two greatest river systems in the world, along latitude 15° and 16° south."

Then follows a description of four routes by which one can go from Montevideo up the Plate, across the divide, and down to the Amazon by any one of its southern tributaries. If he wishes to go down the western confluent (the Madeira), his carry across the divide would be *twenty leagues* (eighty miles). If he should wish to descend the Tapajos, his carry would be *thirty-eight leagues* (152 miles). He could, however, by a carry of *twenty leagues* (eighty miles) cross over from Cuyabá to the Rio Manso, which runs in an easterly direction and empties into the Araguaya (the western branch of the Tocantins) at the great island of Bananal. No one in modern times has travelled on the Rio Manso, but its sources have been discovered near Cuyabá by Gen. Magalhães, and, under his direction, laid down on the official maps of the empire. Its mouth is also known; but it still remains to explore the river, 900 miles in length. In regard to the fourth route, Gen. Magalhães says that while President of Pará he heard from old river men the tradition that in colonial times the Jesuits used to ascend the Tocantins and cross over to the Plate with a portage of only fifteen leagues, and adds:

"I made repeated journeys along the divide, and never could comprehend what streams those energetic fathers followed in order to pass from the Tocantins into the Plate with a carry of only fifteen leagues [sixty miles]. That the waters of the two basins interlace and sometimes confound themselves was well known. [Here he means, of course, the slopes, or rather the flat prairies with their numerous sloughs.] That navigation [by canoes, of course, for the Jesuits went in canoes] in the two systems should approach so near, however, is what I could not understand."

He supposed, therefore, that the tradition was incorrect until June 5, 1871. Being on a journey with others from Goyaz to Cuyabá, their dogs raised a panther, and all followed it until late in the evening, when it was killed. They were then suffering from thirst, and followed down the dry bed of a rivulet, when suddenly and most unexpectedly they came upon a beautiful large stream. Two days afterwards he met a fearless backwoodsman who had explored a part of those solitudes. Then it was, he says, that his eyes were opened, and he understood the route of the Jesuits as clearly as if he himself had been along with those audacious explorers. They would ascend the La Plate to the Paraguay; the Paraguay to the S. Lourenço; the S. L. to the Itiquira; and that small confluent to its source; then cross the divide by a march of *fifteen leagues*, gain the Garças (the stream so unexpectedly found by him), and descend it to the Tocantins and Pará. The shortest carry, therefore, between the Plate and the Amazon confluents would be *sixty miles*, instead of a few hundred yards. Future explorations will no doubt lessen the distance; but in view of Gen. Magalhães's statements it would seem highly improbable, if not impossible, that the carry should be reduced to anything approaching "a few hundred yards"

Yours truly, JOHN. BOYLE.

MOGY-MIRIM, PROVINCIA DE S. PAULO,
December, 1886.

*I hope at some future time to travel through that region, and should I see or learn from some reliable source of such a lake, I will communicate the fact to you.

Notes.

SCRIBNER & WELFORD will issue, in connection with the London publishers, a new and cheap edition of Mme. Campan's 'Memoirs of Marie Antoinette.' It will contain more steel portraits than the English edition.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, have nearly ready for publication Prof. A. P. Peabody's 'Moral Philosophy,' being the lectures delivered to his students in Harvard College, and adapted for textbook purposes. There are twelve essays in the series. This same firm announce a new edition of Archbishop Whately's 'English Synonyms,' under the title, 'English Synonyms Discriminated'; a volume, by Thomas Wentworth Higginson, consisting of an article published some years ago in the *Atlantic Monthly*, giving practical advice to contributors to the press, and his recent brief essay, "Hints on Speech-Making," which appeared in *Harper's Magazine;* and 'Danton in the French Revolution,' by Laurence Gronlund, author of 'The Coöperative Commonwealth: an Exposition of Modern Socialism.'

Belford, Clarke & Co., Chicago and New York, will publish by subscription the authorized 'Life of Gen. John A. Logan,' by George Francis Dawson, ex-Librarian of the Senate. The work will be fully illustrated.

'Principles of Art,' by J. C. Van Dyke, at one time editor of the *Studio*, will shortly be issued by Fords, Howard & Hulbert, New York. The work is divided into two parts—the first treating of "Art in History," its causes, nature, development, and different stages of progression; the second treating of (modern) "Art in Theory," its aims, motives, and manner of expression.

The officers of the Minnesota Historical Society give notice that they will soon have ready a report proving the falsity of the claims of Capt. Glazier as discoverer of the headwaters of the Mississippi. This has already been done so effectually that the game hardly seems worth the candle, but it would appear that Capt. Glazier and his friends are active enough to be annoying.

'Alice's Adventures Under Ground: being a facsimile of the original MS. book afterwards developed into "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland," by Lewis Carroll, with thirty-seven illustrations by the author' (Macmillan), is a little volume which needs no recommendation as a curiosity. So far as the text goes, it shows that Mr. Dodgson's second thought was generally sound, so that he improved upon this rough sketch, just as Tenniel improved upon the crude designs from Mr. Dodgson's own pencil, here printed in their proper places. The pious reflections which precede and follow the manuscript facsimile are singular accompaniments of it, being in the nature of a clerical apology for childish mirthfulness as not displeasing to Deity. They throw some light upon the character and limitations of Mr. Dodgson's humor, which has fallen flat except in the two Alice books. The profits of this memorial volume, so to call it, are to go to children's hospitals and convalescent homes.

Bohn's Standard Library (Scribner & Welford) has been enlarged by three volumes of translations from the German—Ranke's 'History of the Latin and Teutonic Nations from 1494 to 1514,' by Philip Ashworth, who has used the third (1885) edition of a work first published in 1824, and who yet had his task committed to him by the veteran author shortly before his death; Hoffman's 'Serapion Brethren,' vol. i, by Maj. Alex. Ewing, who makes the first attempt to present in their proper connection tales which have heretofore been given detached in their English dress; and finally, Heine's 'Travel-Pictures, including

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the Tour in the Harz, Norderney, and Book of Ideas, together with the Romantic School,' specimen selections by Francis Storr, who, by translating 'The Romantic School,' makes accessible to English readers the whole of the 'Ueber Deutschland,' of which it forms the second part. To Bohn's Scientific Library is now added a 'Handbook of Historical Geology,' by A. J. Jukes-Browne, of which the first part discusses the laws and application of palæontology, and the second gives an historical account of the rock-groups of the earth's crust beneath the British Islands. The book is freely illustrated.

One of the results of the recent Colonial and Indian Exhibition was the publication of an official handbook entitled 'Her Majesty's Colonies,' edited by A. J. R. Trendell (London: W. Clowes). The introduction, by Prof. J. R. Seeley, treats of the origin and history of the colonies and their relations to the mother country, and is followed by an interesting series of diagrams giving statistics of population and trade. The accounts of the various colonies (in which, it should be noted, India and Burmah are not included) consist of brief historical sketches, with descriptions of soil, climate, productions, resources, government, etc. The most carefully prepared of the longer articles, and, we should judge, the most accurate, is upon Canada. From the very full statistics given it is interesting to note that, while the total foreign trade of the Dominion has increased since 1868 nearly £70,000,000, the trade with England, both the exports and the imports, has decreased during that period. In this respect it differs from the Australian colonies, whose trade with Great Britain was nearly £13,000,000 greater in 1884 than in 1874. The chapters upon this group of colonies are not so well done as the others, and are criticised as tending to give too favorable an impression of the climate and the productiveness of the soil. Many of the accounts of the smaller colonies are signed by their authors, in some cases officials, and give in general a very clear idea of their present condition. The maps are hardly as good as might have been expected in a Government publication, but the absence of an index in a book intended to assist emigration is inexcusable.

'Seven Years among the Fjort,' by R. E. Dennet (London: S. Low), while devoid of literary merit, gives an apparently truthful picture of the life of a trader among the natives of the Congo Basin. His is by no means an easy lot, but is full of anxieties and dangers, to say nothing of privations, arising on the one hand from the character of the people with whom he has to deal, and on the other from the continual interference of European officials, all of whom, whether French, Portuguese, or English, seem to be regarded by the trader as a nuisance. In imitation of Mr. Thomson's sketch of the Masai, Mr. Dennet produces the autobiography of a negro prince who becomes the headman of a factory, describing many native customs and beliefs that might easily escape the notice of an ordinary traveller. Of the coast missionaries and the results of their labors he naturally writes very unfavorably, considering the opinion which they freely express of the trader and his work. Slavery he believes to be on the increase throughout Central Africa, except on the Western Coast. There is also an interesting chapter on the liquor traffic, the chief responsibility for which is laid upon the Hamburg and Bremen merchants, who send nearly seven-eighths of the whole amount of liquor imported into Africa. Speaking for his class in general, the author says: "I am sure most of the traders on the coast would be overjoyed to see this traffic annihilated in Africa." The appearance of the famous French explorer De Brazza, on his return from one of his journeys, is described as follows: "A wretched helmet, a ragged shirt, compasses, chronometers, pedometers, and what not, slung from his neck, shoulders, and waist, and a dirty piece of flannel girded about his loins, completed his toilet." The illustrations of the coast scenery are fairly good, but those of the native life and customs from the author's own sketches had better have been omitted.

Mr E. G. Ravenstein, the cartographer, in connection with the preparation of his great map of Equatorial Africa, the eastern section of which has already been, and the western is about to be, published, has nearly completed a bibliographical handbook of this part of Africa, including Abyssinia, the Nile valley to Khartum, and the adjacent provinces of the Sudan. The introduction will be a history of African exploration, illustrated with maps and diagrams. The bibliography will contain references to all papers contributed to periodicals and scientific societies, as well as books and maps. In addition to these will be given biographical sketches of all persons prominently connected with this part of Africa, both native and foreign, with an account of their work and an estimate of its value. Some idea of the extent and fulness of this part of Mr. Ravenstein's handbook may be formed from the fact that these sketches are already more than 3,300 in number. At the end will be a chronological list of travels, the authorities quoted, and a classified index of names and subjects.

We have received the volume of Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Buffalo in August, 1886, with its usual reports, abstracts, and titles of papers and addresses.

Science announces that it has in preparation a series of original maps of explorations and geographical investigations in various parts of the world, under the direction of Dr. Franz Boas, himself an explorer. The first map will accompany one of the March issues.

An unsigned first article on "John Cleves Symmes, the Theorist," is quite the most striking article in the *Southern Bivouac* for February. It is illustrated by a portrait of Symmes, and by a facsimile of the Supplement to the Cincinnati *Western Spy* of November 6, 1819, containing reprints of Symmes's articles on the hollow globe, "habitable within, and constituted of a number of concentric spheres, the poles of which are open twelve or sixteen degrees." His rude diagrams are likewise reproduced.

Exceptionally full of interest is the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January. It opens with a biographical sketch of the late ex-Gov. Hiland Hall of Vermont—a notable figure, in his day, in State and national politics—by his son. Readers will find in it some historical matters of importance. The paper is accompanied by a steel portrait. Two prominent and related families among the intellectual and moral élite of New England, the Wares and the Allens—descendants respectively of Robert Ware of Dedham, Mass., and of the Rev. John Allen, Dedham's first minister—are genealogically illustrated in this number of the *Register*. Mr. Waters's latest "Gleanings in England" introduce us to the Quineys of the John Harvard connection (Shakspere's daughter Judith married a Thomas Quiney of Stratford-on-Avon), to Higginson, Dummer, Kirkland, Davenport, Revere (Reuoire), and other well-known families, their friends or relatives. Mr. J. T. Hassam adds fresh items to his former account of Ezekiel Cheever, the famous master of the Boston Latin School, and prints a long and characteristic letter of his written in 1651. A curious early flag of New England (1695–1701) is copied on page 93 from a Dutch sheet of flags of the world issued about that time.

With the February number, now before us, the Syracuse *Academy* enters on its second volume, and makes a permanent enlargement to forty-eight pages. Its prospects ought to be more than "fair," as it says they are, for this journal marks an era in our pedagogical literature. Those who read in the present number Prof. W. G. Hale's comment on Principal Peck's address on the teaching of Latin, will eagerly await the appearance of Prof. Hale's 'Art of Reading Latin,' now in the press of Ginn & Co.

Members of the Shelley Society will be interested to learn that Mr. F. S. Ellis announces in the *Athenæum* the discovery of the lost MS. of the 'Mask of Anarchy,' in the poet's own hand. Forman printed it from a copy of Mrs. Shelley's, and suggested that it was originally dictated to her. The original draft now found bears out Forman's emendations "pretty well," Mr. Ellis says, and he suggests the Society's reproducing the piece in facsimile. With it was a curious and characteristic letter of Mrs. Shelley to Sir John Bowring, February 25, 1826, in which the impression of her romantic life with Shelley is still felt in strong vibrations of feeling.

The Boston *Advertiser*, noticing the approaching abolition of "sale by candle" at the Bremen exchange, recalls the fact that this "method of auction was at one time common throughout England and Scotland," and "still survives in some places north of the Tweed." Pepys, we will add, has a reference to it in his diary for November 6, 1660: "To our office [the Admiralty], where we met all, for the sale of two ships by an inch of candle (the first time that ever I saw any of this kind,) where I observed how they do invite one another, and at last how they all do cry, and we have much to do to tell who did cry last." An American parallel is found in the old plantation license to the slaves to hold their midnight religious song-and-dance meetings, designated as "one-candle shouts," or two-candle, etc., according to the time allowed.

Goldsmith's life is condensed in a long paper in *Le Livre* for January, but we pass it by to remark on the item concerning the great newspaper collection of the Library of the Arsenal. By the law enforcing the legal deposit of journals in this library, it is in constant receipt of about seven hundred current publications. Meantime it is building up collections of the press of the past, especially of the Revolution and thence downwards. These are already vast and invaluable. Colonial journalism has only recently been cared for, but Algeria is now represented at the Arsenal by some hundred journals of all sorts, including several in the Arab tongue, three in Hebrew, and one in Spanish. This number of the *Revue* also contains the French text of the Berne convention for international copyright. On p. 33 we read that M. Gréard, the new Academician, has been "interviewé" by a reporter—the first time that we recollect seeing this participle.

Keble's 'Christian Year,' Dickens's 'Christmas Carol and The Chimes,' Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America' (with a good introductory sketch of this eccentric naturalist), and the 'Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury,' are the latest issue in "Cassell's National Library."

'The City Government of Philadelphia,' by E. P. Allinson and B. Penrose, and 'The City Government of Boston,' by James M. Bugbee, form Parts i-ii and iii of the fifth series of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Though much the older settlement, Boston is by far the younger corporation, and these two pamphlets furnish in this and other respects a very instructive contrast. The editor of these Studies announces for publication in March an extra bound volume entitled 'Baltimore and the 19th of April, 1861: A Study of the War,' by George William Brown, Mayor of the city in 1861. Judge Brown's point of view may be inferred from the summary of the second

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chapter: "The Compromises of the Constitution in regard to Slavery.—A divided House.—The broken Compact.—The right of Revolution."

The American Economic Association has just published 'Coöperation in New England,' by Edward W. Bemis, Ph.D., following Mr. Shaw's excellent monograph on 'Coöperation in a Western Town,' lately noticed in these columns.

A year ago a subscription was started to present Edward Caird of Glasgow with his portrait, in recognition of his distinguished services as philosopher and teacher. The pleasant project met with a hearty response. A great company of scholars from Scotland, England, and Germany contributed. Twenty subscriptions were sent from this country. George Reid, R.S.A., painted the portrait, which, at Prof. Caird's request, was presented on January 8 to the Senate of Glasgow University. Sir William Thomson presided at the ceremony. Prof. Henry Jones of University College, in speaking for the former pupils of Prof. Caird, called attention to the remarkable fact that "there is not a provincial college in England or in Wales where the teacher of philosophy is not heir to Prof. Caird's thought. In the College of Liverpool, at Manchester, at Cardiff, at Lampeter, at Aberystwith, at Bangor, at Kingston, in the United States and in Australia there are those who, according to their capacity, are witnesses to the truth which they learned from him."

'Short Stories from Modern French Authors' (London: Hachette; Boston: Schoenhof) is an excellent collection of thirty-four extracts from good modern writers, edited by the well-known annotator, M. Jules Bué. The passages selected are all made to serve as material for French conversation by well-directed questions upon the subject-matter, supplemented by grammatical questions which are in some cases very searching. These are not made by the editor, but, as the title-page tells us, by a group of "professors," some of whose names appear probably for the first time in a printed volume. The questions are in general so good that teachers who desire to make their pupils talk French in class will find the volume desirable to use, and very suggestive in the difficult art of asking pertinent questions that pupils can answer.

The third volume of the 'Histoire de la monarchie de Juillet,' by M. Thureau-Dangin (Paris: Plon; Boston: Schoenhof), embraces the period between 1836 and 1839. These comparatively uninteresting years of the reign of Louis-Philippe offer ample material for the author's severity of judgment and disdain. A fervent Catholic and a partisan of parliamentary monarchy, he brings his talents as a polemist to bear upon past events so as to make his work full of allusions to the present. Partisan though it be, M. Thureau-Dangin's history cannot be neglected by any one interested in either the political, literary, social, or religious movement that preceded the revolution of 1848. It is a book full of life, and reliable, if the author's lofty point of view is accepted.

M. Albert Vandal continues his researches on French influences in the Orient. We noticed, when it appeared, his interesting essay on 'Le Pacha Bonneval.' He has now just published a work of much greater scope and importance: 'Une Ambassade française en Orient sous Louis XV.—La Mission du Marquis de Villeneuve' (Paris: Plon; Boston: Schoenhof). This is preceded by a masterly preface, which broadly traces the general tendencies of French policy in the Orient in the eighteenth century, a policy of which Hammer, in his 'History of the Ottoman Empire,' could say that never before nor since "was it felt by results so brilliant." M. Vandal's new book throws a flood of light upon many obscure contemporary questions in regard to Russia and Turkey and the Eastern question generally.

'Les Amours d'un ténor' (Paris: Westhausser) presents itself with its title and its fanciful cover designed by Caran d'Ache as if it were a French novel of the most modern realistic school. Yet it is signed D. Mouravline (Prince Dimitri Gallitzin), and the title-page tells us it is translated from the Russian by Serge Nossoff. But "il y a fagot et fagot," and it will not take many such stories as 'Les Amours d'un ténor' to bring into discredit the phrase *traduit du russe*. The book is full of characters and scenes which have all the disagreeableness of realism without the merit of being true to nature.

The same publisher has recently issued other translations from Slavic writers of a very different order: Sacher-Masoch's 'Nouvelles slaves,' with a preface by Victor Cherbuliez; 'Sans Cœur,' by the celebrated Polish novelist Kraszewski; 'Berlin et Paris; voyage satirique à travers l'Europe,' by one of the most famous of living Russian authors, Saltykoff, or (to give him the name by which he signs all his literary work and by which alone he is known as a writer) Shtchedrin.

—The midwinter number of the *Century* is unusually rich in its text. Better travel-sketching than William C. Church's little paper on the Bahamas, illustrated after Winslow Homer's water-color studies in Nassau, it would be hard to find. One gets from it an all-round view of the islands, their history, the characteristics of the people, notable events, scenery—every phase, in fact, down to the geological claim which our nation might advance to their possession, as a part of the débris of the Mississippi, though this mode of acquiring territorial jurisdiction by a kind of natural earth-right may not be readily admitted by Britishers. The sketch of the oldest church in London, with Pennell's illustrations, is also a brief study, admirably condensed and arranged; and Prof. Lanciani's description of the fate of the Roman bronzes, and of the recovery of the two athletic figures in the Quirinal in 1885, is also a model bit of popular archæological writing. The instalment of Lincoln's Life covers his Congressional career and some years of law practice, and is of less interest because less personal than the previous chapters. One regrets, too, having to say that the analysis of the political situation shows strange defects of comprehension and curious errors of detail. Who would credit that Charles Sumner is called a Democrat? The political grasp is weak here; and in the field of history, it must be acknowledged, the biography does not sustain the hopes of excellence it excited. Mr. Atkinson's paper on the weakness of nations uses the phrases of political economy more freely than did the former one, but he succeeds in making his reasoning about the relations of wages, taxes, and profits tolerably clear to the common mind: or, at least, his conclusions are driven home. His view of the financial future abroad is a dark one, and there is something worth attention for the rigorous social moralist in the mood of mind with which he regards repudiation of dynastic and war debts by the European democracy, and in his views as to the right of one generation to mortgage the labor and spend the substance of the next. He certainly writes very cheerfully of the spoliation which he suggests is coming. The illustrations of the number are largely portraits, among which those of Dr. McCosh and Father Taylor give occasion for articles; of those in the Lincoln paper that of Joshua R. Giddings and that of the Cartwright couple are remarkable, and all are good.

—The January number of the new quarterly *Deutsch-Amerikanisches Magazin* is full of valuable and interesting articles, most of which are from the pen of its editor, Mr. H. A. Ratterman. Although it prints eight or nine poems and a number of miscellaneous papers, it is mainly devoted to the history of the German element in America and the biography of German-Americans, treated in several series of essays continued from number to number. The bound volumes of this review will thus have a permanent value, and constitute an important contribution to American historical literature. If it receives the support to which it is entitled on its merits, its future is secure. No American of German birth or descent can read it without being stimulated at once to greater respect for his ancestors and a warmer attachment to his present home. The biographical department of the present number includes the first instalment of a life of Gen. Augustus Moor, who came to Baltimore in 1833 and served in the Seminole war of 1837 under Maj. Powell; the second part of an account of the youth of Gen. Muhlenberg, relating how, at the age of twenty, he ran away from a grocer in Lübeck, to whom he had been apprenticed, and enlisted in an English regiment bound for America, in order to get back home, to the great chagrin of his pious father, several of whose letters are here printed to the great entertainment of the reader; a first essay concerning Augustine Herrman, or, as known in Dutch and English writings, Heermans, a prominent merchant of New Amsterdam, a member of Peter Stuyvesant's Council of Nine in 1648, and one of the "Proprietors of East Jersey"; and, finally, a second part of the life of Friedrich Kapp, principally consisting, however, of copious quotations from Dr. von Holst's article in the *Preussische Jahrbücher*. A third article is promised, treating of Kapp's literary and historical activity. There are also two interesting historical contributions, one a first chapter of the history of the German-American newspaper press, and the other a continuation from the previous number of the journal of Johann Konrad Döhla, who served as a private in one of the two regiments furnished by the Margrave of Anspach to the British army in 1777 to 1783. There is abundant amusement to be got from this journal, such as the following account of the causes which led to the war:

> "England, which must be understood to mean the Parliament, desired to burden the citizens and inhabitants of the thirteen colonies with higher taxes. In addition thereto they sent them tea, which they were to buy, and at high prices, too, so as to draw the more profit and revenue from this country. But as America grows plenty of tea of the best quality, and the inhabitants were abundantly supplied, they refused to receive any from England, and petitioned the King and the Parliament to spare them any further shipments, as they had enough and more. And they sent back the ships and the tea and as much money as the same was worth, etc."

—A few unimportant criticisms of this useful publication suggest themselves. Why should not a German work appearing in this country be printed in Roman characters? Then, also, it would contribute to the convenience of readers if the notes were printed at the foot of each page rather than at the end of each article. A graver fault is that the style is not entirely free from the American corruptions that render the reading of so many German-American newspapers almost painful. It is true there are not many of these. One of them is too comical a literal translation from the English: Authorities are cited in bulk, to which "ein allgemeiner Kredit gegeben wird." The use of the word credit in this sense, quite common in English, but not in German, reminds one of Heine's account of the numerous thrashings he got, as a boy, from his French master, because he persisted in rendering "der Glaube" (faith) as "le crédit," instead of "la religion." "I must confess,"

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he adds, "that *le crédit* has been of more use to me throughout life than *la religion*."

—M. Charles Bigot, in the *Revue Bleue* for January 22, continuing his impressions of America as a Bartholdi delegate, thus sings the praises of the national capital:

"C'est une jolie ville, une fort jolie ville que Washington. Elle réjouit singulièrement nos yeux au sortir de New-York. Ici, point de plan géométrique, point de rues tirées au cordeau et qui se coupent implacablement à angle droit. La promenade a de la variété, de la fantaisie et de l'imprévu. Partout des jardins publics et privés, de grands squares plantés de beaux arbres, des arbres aux environs des grandes avenues, la nature mêlée à l'humanité. On habiterait Washington avec plaisir. Les maisons sont de belle apparence, d'un meilleur goût que celles de New York. Les magasins s'étalent spacieusement, sans être trop pressés. Washington n'a pas seulement bon air, il a grand air. Il prend au sérieux son rôle de capitale. Il fait penser à Versailles, mais à un Versailles moins uniforme, moins rectiligne, moins solennel."

With this it is instructive to recall the picture of the same city drawn in 1840–42 by the French Ambassador Bacourt in his home letters ('Souvenirs d'un Diplomate'):

"Nous avons visité la ville, qui ne se compose en réalité que d'une seule rue, nommée l'avenue de Pennsylvanie. . . . L'avenue est plus large de moitié que la rue de la Paix; elle est plantée et garnie de trottoirs en briques; le milieu, macadamisé et jamais arrosé, est un terrible amas de poussière l'été, et un cloaque l'hiver. Les autres rues ne sont pas pavées non plus, mais ont des trottoirs. . . . Les maisons, à un seul étage et toutes en briques rouges, ont une apparence mesquine; elles sont beaucoup trop éparpillées pour les vingt-cinq mille habitants qu'elles contiennent. . . . La prétendue ville de Washington, qui n'est vraiment ni ville ni village: ce sont des maisons jetées à droite et à gauche, sans des alignements fictifs. Tout cela a un air désolé, misérable, qui, même avec de la verdure, fait pitié! Jugez de ce que ce sera par la pluie, la neige et la gelée. . . . Un endroit de désolation et dont le séjour est intolérable."

—On another point our Frenchmen are as closely in accord as they are here (for good reasons) divergent. The view from Greenwood Cemetery impresses both alike. On September 14, 1840, M. Bacourt writes:

"Je suis allé, ce matin, à six milles d'ici voir l'emplacement et les préparatifs d'un nouveau cimetière qui ressemblera à un magnifique parc anglais. . . . Sur le point le plus élevé de ce cimetière . . . se trouve une plate-forme, sur laquelle on se propose de placer un monument à la mémoire du général Washington. La vue que, de cette plate-forme, on a sous les yeux, est certainement la plus belle qui existe dans le monde entier!"

M. Bigot, in the autumn of 1886, is a little more restrained; but if we interpret his last sentence in a broad sense, he thinks the view well worth crossing the Atlantic for:

"Nous montons au point le plus élevé du cimetière. Là se trouve le monument commémoratif en l'honneur des victimes de la guerre de sécession. D'ici la vue est admirable, par cette belle journée d'automne sans nuages. Nous dominons Brooklyn et la grande cité de New-York. Au fond, Jersey City et les collines des rives de l'Hudson ferment l'horizon. Devant nous et à notre gauche s'étend la rade de New-York, semée d'îlots, toute lumineuse, brillante comme un miroir sous le soleil de midi, sur laquelle courent en tous sens des douzaines de grands bateaux à vapeur crachant la fumée par leurs cheminées, faisant siffler et grincer leurs sirènes. N'y eût-il que ce spectacle à chercher ici, il vaudrait la peine de faire le pèlerinage."

— The first volume, of ten, of Mr. John Bigelow's edition of the works of Benjamin Franklin (Putnams) shows that the series will have, typographically, the essential merits of Mr. Lodge's Hamilton. The paper is excellent, the print large, the margins generous. On the other hand, some of the defects we had to point out in the case of the latter series are visible here, and we mention them thus early because there is abundant time to rectify them, even at the sacrifice of absolute uniformity. To begin with, there is no other running title than "The Works of Benjamin Franklin," and yet one-half of the present volume is taken up with the Autobiography, while the shorter pieces which follow could all to equal advantage have been indicated at the top of the page. This is no slight matter. Then care is not always taken to distinguish Franklin's notes from the editor's. Then the table of contents is too perfunctory. "To Sir Hans Sloane," "To Mrs. Jane Macom," "Letter from Antony Afterwit," yield no help to the searcher; whereas nothing would have been easier than to indicate in two lines the subject of the communication or essay. Finally, the proof-reading leaves something to be desired. On page 359, in a foot-note, reference is made to "*supra*, ii, pages 152, 153," as if it were not volume one we had in hand, but some volume later than the second. In fact, the "*supra*" is right, but the "ii." has no meaning that we can discover. In a note on page 23, the date of Mr. Bigelow's 'Life of Franklin' is given as 1884 instead of 1874.

—That this Life should be mentioned only thus obscurely seems odd on Mr. Bigelow's part, since his introduction dwells at so much length on his finding of the original manuscript of the Autobiography, and one who did not read carefully would be led to suppose that it had never before been printed in its integrity. It would have been more natural for him to direct the reader at the outset to the Lippincott edition of 1874 for a particular account of the treasure trove, adding (if he chose) some of the amusing but historically unimportant letters of his agent here given at length. As it is, neither narrative of the circumstances is complete without the other. In making this collection, Mr. Bigelow of course depends in the main on Sparks's edition of the Works, but corrects the mistaken emendations of this too "proper" and adoring historian, arranges his pieces chronologically instead of topically, and adds from three to four hundred new ones derived from the mass of Franklin manuscripts bought of Henry Stevens by our Government, and now in the library of the State Department. In the end, therefore, we shall have an edition not likely to be superseded—and also, let us add, not easy to procure, since only 600 copies have been printed for sale, and from types, not from stereotype plates. Mr. Bigelow reproduces the steel portrait after the pastel by Duplessis, which formed the frontispiece to the Life of 1874. From Parton's Life of Franklin he borrows the summary of *Poor Richard* prefaces. We remark on p. xviii. of his Preface a very exceptional use of the word organ, in the passage which speaks of a letter of William Temple Franklin's printed in an obscure Paris newspaper—"an organ not one *note* of which was likely to reach England or America." This is like calling it a medium not one drop or particle of which, etc.

—In view of the aptitude for numerical calculation which the Hindus are acknowledged to possess in a marked degree, it seems singular that India, in modern days, and especially during the period in which it has been subject to the English, with their free-handed educational encouragement, should have contributed so little to the development of mathematical science. It was not destined, however, that Bhâskarâchârya, Brahmagupta, and their compeers of ages far remote should be wholly without their nineteenth-century successors. Râmachandra, a native of Delhi, besides translating numerous works on mathematics, including the higher, from English into Urdû, produced, a generation ago, at least one work in the same language, distinguished by accredited originality. Reference is here intended to his 'Problems of Maxima and Minima,' the second edition of which, prefaced by the late Prof. De Morgan, was published in London in 1859, under the auspices of the Court of Directors, who signified their appreciation of it by presenting its author with £200, after their liberal fashion. And now we have to announce the appearance, last year, of a kindred treatise, but one of much ampler scope, 'Chalana-kalana,' bearing the alternative title of "A Hindî Treatise on the Differential Calculus." This admirably printed volume, extending to nearly 500 pages, has for its author Pandit Sudhâkara Dvivedin, Librarian of the Sanskrit College at Benares. The learned Pandit, already favorably known as a mathematician by what he has written, in Sanskrit, on the properties of the ellipse, lays claim to the introduction of many new methods, over and above demonstrating the validity of a certain method which had previously been pronounced unsound. In an English preface, abounding with interesting facts and criticisms, he gives it as his opinion that Bhâskarâchârya, who, though he flourished in the twelfth century, is supposed to have been indebted for nothing to European sources, "was in no way inferior to Archimedes, in respect of his methods of differential calculus." As the Pandit expresses himself with perfect clearness in our language, it is due to his reputation that he should render into it those portions of his treatise in which, as he alleges, he has improved on what has been accomplished by his predecessors—Mr. Todhunter and Mr. Hall, in particular.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL OF EVOLUTIONISTS.

The Origin of the Fittest: Essays on Evolution. By E. D. Cope, A.M., Ph.D. (Heidelberg). D. Appleton & Co. 1887.

WHILE the general doctrine of evolution is nowhere more appreciated than among American naturalists, the same can hardly be said for that particular form of it which is usually known as Darwinism. For many years there has been a tendency among the younger students of nature —those who have grown up under the influence of the new ideas and the new methods of research which have prevailed since the 'Origin of Species' was published—to be dissatisfied with the doctrine of natural selection as an explanation of the forms, structures, and complex relations of organized beings. While admitting the reality and importance of Darwin's great discovery, they urge that it affords at best but a partial explanation of the facts; that it deals with only half, and that the least important half, of the problem. They maintain that the real essence of the problem is to discover the efficient causes of those "variations" which are selected, of those "fittest" modifications of structure which can alone survive; and they believe that the time has come when these great problems may be successfully attacked, and a new light thrown on the inmost recesses of nature's laboratory.

Foremost of this school is Dr. E. D. Cope, the well-known anatomist and palæontologist, who in the work now under notice has collected together the various essays, papers, lectures, and addresses by means of which, during the last eighteen years, he has made known his views on evolution in all its bearings. We find here discussions on the relations of animals and plants, on the influence of mind in nature, and on the origin of consciousness, with others on less recondite problems, such as the causes which have brought about the specialized teeth and feet of the various orders of mammalia, and the general evidences for evolution afforded by the vertebrate animals. Some of these questions are discussed at great length, and in several distinct essays from somewhat different points of view, so

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that it is not always easy to get at the author's exact meaning. We will do our best, however, to give our readers a general idea of Mr. Cope's views upon some of the more interesting questions, pointing out where, in our opinion, his arguments or his conclusions are open to criticism.

One of the largest and most important chapters is that on the Origin of Genera, which, it is alleged, is a more distinct subject from the origin of species than has been supposed. Throughout the whole essay it is tacitly assumed that generic characters are of a different nature from specific characters, and are always to be distinguished from them, and hence that "genera" are definite realities in nature quite distinct from mere groups of species. This view is directly opposed to the teaching of Darwin and to the experience of systematists, to whom the successive grades of *sub-genus*, *genus*, and *sub-family* are often uncertain and fluctuating; while the idea seems to have arisen from the author's greater familiarity with the skeletons than with the external structures of animals. Mr. Cope further maintains that allied genera differ from each other by single characters only, and that these characters are rarely adaptations to external needs or forces, but are due to laws of acceleration or retardation of growth which act without any reference to fitness at all. In other chapters this acceleration is said to be due to "growth-force," and to be determined in its direction by use and effort.

It is interesting to note that this leads to an origin of genera quite distinct from that postulated by Darwin, and which has seemed to most naturalists not only to be simple and probable, but to be a logical result of the theory of development. On the theory of natural selection, new species are produced when any change of conditions requires slight modifications either in color, form, or structure to keep up the harmony between the animal and its environment; or when the struggle for existence is so severe that some individuals of a species are driven to adopt a somewhat different mode of life from their fellows and become modified to suit it—as, for example, when allied terrestrial and arboreal species have acquired differently formed feet. Now, if a species which has thus struck out a new course of life becomes gradually modified into more perfect adaptation to it, and then gives rise to a set of varieties or new species each adapted to some specialized form of that new mode of life, this new group of species constitutes a new genus, and is characterized usually by some structural peculiarity—such as differences in the feet or teeth—which is the special adaptation it has needed and acquired. On this view every new genus has originated in some one modified species of an allied genus.

Mr. Cope's view is very different from this. He believes, to use his own words, "that a new genus has been established by the transition of a number of species of a preceding genus, without necessary loss of specific characters"; and he even thinks the same process may have gone on in the transition of a large number of genera into new orders or sub-orders "by the assumption or loss of the character or characters of that to or from which they were transferred, and that without necessary loss of their generic characters." He believes that this explains the similarity of external form which is often found in corresponding species of distinct genera or distinct families, a similarity which Darwinians explain by the influence of similar conditions affecting growth or coloration.

To make the difference of principle clear to readers not familiar with minute generic distinctions, we will take an extreme and imaginary case. Let us suppose that the two great families of the wolves and foxes (Canidæ), on the one hand, and the cats (Felidæ), on the other, were much more alike externally than they really are, differing mainly in the important character of the retractile and non-retractile claws and in the habits corresponding to this difference, and that it is required to explain how the Felidæ had been derived from the Canidæ. According to Darwin, some species of fox-like animal had been driven to climb trees in search of food, and every modification giving increased prehensile power to the claws and increased agility had been preserved by natural selection; while subsequently many modifications of this type had been developed to prey upon different kinds of animals, some of the larger ones again becoming adapted to a terrestrial life, and using their agile bodies and retractile claws to capture antelopes, deer, and other swift and wary creatures. But, according to the theory of Mr. Cope, a number of species of primeval Canidæ each acquired independently the characters of retractile claws and agile limbs, and formed the new group Felidæ, which was thus not derived from any one common ancestor, but from a number of distinct species which, through similar causes, had undergone an almost identical structural change. It must be clearly understood that this is only an illustration, since the two families referred to are too remote and too specialized to have been derived directly the one from the other; but the principle is the same as that which would apply to any two distinct but closely allied groups.

Perhaps the most distinctive feature of the new school is the return to the teaching of Lamarck, that use and effort are the immediate causes of useful variations, and that the individuals which exhibit these are the "fittest" which survive. It is claimed that the "origin of the fittest" can be explained in no other way, and that, until the right variations are produced, no effective selection or useful survival can take place. With regard to the effects of use, Mr. Cope says:

"Another reason for believing in use as a cause of structural change is the manner in which the same useful structures have evidently appeared on totally distinct stems, as an evident adaptation to the same circumstances in which different types have been equally placed. Thus the birds of prey possess the hooked, often toothed, beak appropriate for tearing and destroying animals. Their stock is the same as that of the cuckoos and parrots, and even of the pigeons. The butcher-birds are of the division of songsters, not widely removed from the thrushes, and far enough from the raptores, yet the same hook and dentate bill reappears in them, as adapted to flesh-eating habits. Among the reptiles, which were no doubt originally land animals, and derived from batrachians, we have a large number adapted to swimming in the ocean, and these not all of the same stock. Thus the *Plesiosauri* are crocodilian in relationship, while the *Pythonomorpha* of America were of the same [stock] that produced the snake and lizard. Again, the same modification appears in the Cetaceans, or whale, etc., among mammals, which are primarily a terrestrial division."

To all this the Darwinian would probably reply that no causal connection has been shown to exist between the feeding on flesh instead of insects, and the production of a hook or tooth to the bill. The use of the bill in seizing larger animals might conceivably strengthen the muscles or even enlarge the bill itself, but could have no such effect as causing the tip of the bill to bend downwards, or a definite portion of the margin to grow out into a tooth. On the other hand, any individual variations in the form of the bill tending towards a hook or a tooth (and just such variations occur now whenever large numbers of specimens are examined) would give a slight advantage in seizing the prey, and would therefore be preserved and accumulated by natural selection. So with the tails of marine animals: the action of swimming might strengthen the muscles of the tail and lead to an increase of its size, but how it should lead to its compression and lateral expansion is by no means clear. Any such change of form would, however, undoubtedly improve it as a swimming instrument, and thus every variation in that direction would be preserved.

An equal want of relation between the supposed cause and the result to be explained exists in the case of the rattle of the rattlesnake, where "the habit of violent vibration" is said to tend "to determine an increased amount of nutritive fluid" to the tail. This might increase the muscular power of the tail by the constant use of special muscles, but something more is required to account for the formation of the horny rattles and modified caudal vertebræ of the rattlesnake.

Use, however, implies some organ or part to be used, the variations in which can be preserved by natural selection, and it is urged with some force that the beginnings of new structures or organs cannot be thus accounted for. For this the doctrine of effort is appealed to, as being a power adequate to direct the "growth-force" in a definite direction, and thus initiate a new organ. The power of imagination or desire acting as a stimulus to the secretions is called in to aid and extend the effects of this principle. As one of the best illustrations of the effects of effort, Mr. Cope refers to the production of horns or shields on the heads of so many animals. Toads are said to protect themselves from attack by presenting the top of the head forward and using it as a shield, and the result is seen in the more highly developed forms possessing more completely ossified crania, while some have projecting angles on the head rarely developed into short horns. The phrynosoma, or horned toad of California and Arizona, is really a sluggish lizard which has developed sharp horns on the back of its head for protection. In the case of the Ruminants, it is remarked that they have the habit of defending themselves by bending down the head with the horns forward, and this habit in the primitive hornless ancestors is supposed to have produced the horns by the combined action of the mental effort directing nutriment to that part, and the surface irritation produced by friction whenever the head was used in combat or defence. In support of this view it is pointed out that the generalized group represented by the hog, which were no doubt the genetic predecessors of the Ruminants, also throw the head down in defence in the same way. It is not, however, explained how it is that in this case tusks and not horns have been developed.

Perhaps the most valuable and suggestive of the applications of the theory of use in modifying structure is presented in the short chapter "On the Origin of the Foot-Structures of the Ungulates." The remarkable progressive change of a four or five-toed ancestor into the one-toed horse, and the equally remarkable division of the whole group of ungulate animals into the odd-toed and even-toed divisions, are attempted to be explained by the effects of impact and use among animals which frequented hard or swampy ground respectively. On hard ground it is urged that the long middle toe would be most used and subjected to the greatest strains, and would therefore acquire both strength and development. It would then be still more exclusively used, and the extra nourishment required by it would be drawn from the adjacent less-used toes, which would accordingly diminish in size, till, after a long series of changes, the records of which are so well preserved in our American tertiary rocks, the true one toed horse was developed. In soft or swampy ground, on the other hand, the tendency would be to spread out the foot so that there were two toes on each side. The two middle toes would thus be most used and most subject to strains, and would therefore increase at the expense of the lateral toes. There would be,

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no doubt, an advantage in these two functional toes being of equal size so as to prevent twisting of the foot while walking, and variations tending to bring this about would be advantageous and would therefore be preserved. Thus, by a parallel series of changes in another direction adapted to a distinct set of conditions, we should arrive at the symmetrical divided hoofs of our deer and cattle. The fact that sheep and goats are specially mountain and rock loving animals may be explained by their being a later modification, since the divided hoof once formed is evidently well adapted to secure a firm footing on rugged and precipitous ground, although it could hardly have been first developed in such localities. It will be noted, however, that throughout all this series of changes the influence of natural selection would be required to seize upon and preserve each favorable variation as it occurred.

Another interesting chapter is that on "The Evolution of the Vertebrata Progressive and Retrogressive." Many types in all orders of vertebrates present rudimentary organs, as rudimentary digits, feet, or limbs, rudimental fins, teeth, or wings. There is scarcely an organ or part which is not somewhere in a rudimental and more or less useless condition. These cases may be either persistent primitive conditions to be regarded as ancestral types which have survived to the present time, or, on the other hand, they may be the results of a process of degeneration, and therefore comparatively modern. The former interpretation was once the most generally adopted, but of late years so many proofs of degeneration have been discovered that it is seen to have played a very important part in bringing about the existing forms of animal and plant life. Mr. Cope defines degeneracy as a loss of parts without corresponding development of other parts. In determining the grade of development (or what should be termed advancement) in the organic scale, we have often to strike a balance between degeneration and progression according to the importance of the parts implicated. We regard sensibility as the highest of animal functions, and mind as the highest form of sensibility. Therefore development of organs of sensibility and mind constitutes a better claim of progress than development of stomach or of skin. The ruminating animals are said to be much superior to man in the structure of their feet, teeth, and stomach, yet we assign the higher position to the quadrumana and to man, on account of the superior complication of their brain structure.

The earliest reptiles, the theromorpha, were more nearly allied to mammalia than any now living, so that reptiles as a whole may be said to have degenerated. They have, however, become specialized for certain modes of life, and the whole order of snakes have entirely lost the limbs, so that we have here a process of creation by degeneration on a large scale. Some lizards have also lost either the fore or hind limbs, or in some cases all the limbs, thus resembling snakes in outward form though differing from them altogether in structure. The earliest birds probably possessed a long bony tail as well as teeth, both of which they have lost. The whales and manatees among the mammalia have degenerated by the loss of their posterior limbs and the modification of their fore limbs into swimming paddles. The seals have partially degenerated from the carnivorous type, and the sloths and ant-eaters are supposed to have lost the teeth which their ancestors possessed, and thus to have suffered degeneration.

One of the most curious speculations to be found in this volume is the tracing of plant to animal life through a progressive automatism and loss of consciousness. It is urged that all definite motion in organic beings must have been once conscious motion, and that all automatic or unconscious motions or acts were acquired and organized in states of consciousness. All evidence goes to show that actions sufficiently often repeated become automatic, and it is now believed that all the vital actions of the heart, lungs, stomach, and other organs originated in voluntary motions of some lowly organized ancestor. Mr. Cope thus applies this principle to plants:

"Bearing in mind the property of protoplasm to organize machinery which shall work automatically in the absence of consciousness, we can glance at the succession of vegetable forms. The active movements of the primary stages of the Algæ are well known. After swimming actively through the water, they settle down, take root, and assume the rôle of plants. The *Aethalium*, swimming with the movements of a Rhizopod, has been known to take food before establishing itself on the damp piles of the tan-bark, where it speedily becomes a low form of fungus. The approximation of the lower forms of plants to animals is notorious. The fungi, it is said, are the only terrestrial plants which live like animals on organic matter, appropriating the humus of their rich midus in a state of solution. Now, the palæontology of animals has absolutely established the fact that the predecessors of all characteristic or specialized types have been unspecialized or generalized types. It may then be regarded as almost certain that the ancestors of the present higher types of plants were more animal-like than they; that the forms displaying automatic movements were more numerous, and the difficulty of deciding on the vegetable or animal nature of a living organism greater than it is now. Hence it may be concluded that animal consciousness has from time to time organized its machinery and then disappeared for ever, leaving as a result the permanent form of life which we term vegetable. But it is not to be supposed that all changes of structure cease with the departure of consciousness. Given spontaneous movement (*i. e.*, growth), and surrounding conditions, and the resultant product must be structures adapted to their surroundings, just as the plastic clay be fitted to its mould. And this is essentially the distinguishing character of vegetable teleology as compared with animal. In the average plant we see adaptation to the conditions of unconscious nutrition; in the animal, adaptation to conditions of conscious contact with the world under a great variety of conditions."

Whether this remarkable theory of the relations of plant and animal life be ultimately proved to be true or not, it is certainly very suggestive, and opens up before us illimitable vistas of inquiry into the obscure arcana of nature. Many such intellectual gems may be found in the volume under consideration, but they have to be dug out from a mass of unattractive ore. The great fault of the book is that no attempt has been made to systematize and weld together the material of which it is composed. Hence frequent repetitions and self-quotations, with a considerable amount of purely technical matter, quite unreadable by any one but an experienced anatomist. There is ample proof of the author's ability to write a connected work which should set forth his matured views on the great problems of evolution in an attractive as well as an instructive manner; and it is much to be regretted that the somewhat pretentious title here attached to a mere reprint of his collected papers was not reserved for such a work.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Princess Casamassima. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

The Minister's Charge. By W. D. Howells. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Rankell's Remains. By Barrett Wendell. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

Sir Percival. By J. H. Shorthouse. Macmillan & Co.

A Demigod. Harper & Brothers.

The Bow of Orange Ribbon. By Amelia E. Barr. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Between Two Loves. By Amelia E. Barr. Harper's Handy Series.

'The Princess Casamassima' disturbs the conviction that Mr. James is the chief apostle of that restricted realism which ignores extraordinary events and unusual characters, and denies the influence of the apparently accidental on the general current of life, and of exceptional individuals on the history of humanity. It fits an empirical yet generally accepted definition of realistic fiction about as neatly as does 'Aladdin and the Wonderful Lamp.' One hardly stretches a point in drawing a parallel of improbability between the adventures of Aladdin with his Princess and the adventures of Hyacinth, bookbinder of Soho, with his Princess, the "most wonderful woman in Europe." Let it not be supposed that Mr. James has gone over to romance and magic; he has only selected people whom very few of us are likely ever to know, placed them in circumstances best suited to develop them, and dispassionately told the whole truth about them. His persistent desire to see the truth, and his marvellous ability for telling it, whether the case under consideration be special or typical, prove that he has become a "realist" in the only significant or, indeed, intelligent sense of the word. Though, as a rule, the value of a study of types is, of course, greater than that of exceptions, the exceptional, if well chosen, almost certainly gives the author the best chance to show his greatest strength. In this series of studies of exceptions Mr. James shows a versatility and power hardly hinted at in his former work. Such complex and high-strung natures as Hyacinth and the Princess call out reserves of keenness and intellectual refinement unexpected even in him; and in the score of uncommon people temporarily united by common interest in a great question, his wit and sarcasm are agreeably tempered by a tenderness and even intensity of feeling which he has hitherto carefully repressed. The gain to the reader in interest is enormous, for, if a novelist will not give us a dramatic plot or thrilling scenes, and will leave off just when he has prepared us for a splendid finish, we are more than compensated for emotional disappointment by the intellectual pleasure of thought directed towards aims and objects not circumscribed by personal desire or local predisposition and habit. Throughout the novel we are carried far away from the average man and his motives in the ordinary conditions of life, but we are not invited to step outside of humanity; on the contrary, our understanding of humanity and sympathy with it are very materially extended and stimulated.

The Princess is an enigma, brilliant and inscrutable. All her frank and illogical talk, all her eccentric behavior, all the author's analysis, fail to make her comprehensible, but they accomplish his intention to portray a woman beyond shadow of doubt dazzlingly incomprehensible. Her personality smacks as little of the respectable aristocracy as of the middle class or the mob. She is a product of high fashion, of the great world, sick to death of all that goes to produce her. She is irresponsible, elusive, incalculable. She is never in the highest sense spiritual, never basely sensual. Her passions are only caprices, and her caprices have for the moment the active force of a great passion. While we know her, her dominant whim is to identify herself with the people, to clap the great democracy on the back, to imagine herself an intimate counsellor of the darkest conspirators, to believe, as she likes to say, that she is head and shoulders "in it." The Princess, as nearly as we can get at her, is a monument of sincere insincerity, and it was well for poor little Hyacinth, who long supplied her imagination with a concrete representative of her caprice, that the end came before he wholly realized the truth.

Little Hyacinth, born in a slum, bred on a poor dressmaker's charity, doomed to bear the burden of a parentage doubtful in all but its

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shame, is the great figure of the book. His organization is most sensitive and exquisite, and in him all the author's intellectual subtlety and distinction find expression. He is no easier to classify or label than the Princess. He is specifically of the unhappy only—the most unhappy, for his case is not so much that of a nature at war with circumstances as of a nature made up of incongruous, irreconcilable elements—a nature for ever arrayed against itself. At his worst, Hyacinth is never sordid or grudging or snobbish; at his best he is aflame with nobility, not heroic, romantic, and impossible, but entirely consistent with modern sentiment and the aspiration that is permissible or possible to us. Always, in his enthusiasms and dejection, in the light, ironical mood which is most frequent, Hyacinth is indefinably sad. The people whose lives touch Hyacinth's are each in his way as exactly and vividly drawn. No English novelist has given us such a Frenchman as Poupin, such a German as Shinkel, such an Italian as Prince Casamassima. The London shop-girl Milicent Henning—who, by the way, is typical—is perfect in her superabundant health and slang, her scrupulous care for her virtue, and her hopeless, unconscious vulgarity.

It is rash to venture any conclusions about the author's personal attitude towards the Socialistic movement which agitates and colors the lives of his characters. He may be accused of using a serious movement simply for literary purposes, of scoffing at its intensity, playing with its passion, treating it often as frivolously as if it were a question of woman's-dress reform. But there is an undertone of earnestness suggesting that he, like Hyacinth after his eyes began to open, sees most clearly, at the bottom of the cry about elevating the people, the "ulcer of envy, the passion of a party hanging together for the purpose of despoiling another to its advantage.

It is hardly fair to leave this novel without a word about its literary manner and style. There is, of course, very little plot, and that little is immaterial. There is a mass of what, from a hasty reading, may be stigmatized as super-subtle analyses, ultra-refined phrases, fine-spun nothings. But a careful reading—and for the dimmest appreciation that is necessary—will pretty surely acquit the author of such sins, and compel the recognition that, putting aside his skill as a novelist, he has written a book remarkable for the precision, elegance, and distinction of its style.

The points of resemblance in the writing of Howells and James, so evident that we naturally couple their names as representatives of a school, are very forcibly present to one reading the 'Minister's Charge' close upon the 'Princess Casamassima.' There is the same facility and apparent delight in laying bare the secret recesses of thought, the same habit of presenting sentiment and what may be called mental tragedy through a medium of light, humorous satire, a similar command of telling and brilliant expression. For downright cruelty and cold-blood in the dissection of the meaner and shabbier part of every man, the one has often proved himself the equal of the other. They have done it so often, at such great length, with such unquestionable fidelity, that, with the mote "realism" in our eye, we have cried in despair, Are the qualities in men that we know to be fine not real? Are trivial baseness, petty viciousness, the only truths? Are we ourselves, in our occasional better impulses and actions, pure hypocrites imposing on stupidity, as our own density is in turn imposed on? At last Mr. James has given us some comfort, but Mr. Howells plunges us the more deeply in gloom. In this novel, as in 'A Modern Instance' and 'Silas Lapham,' he shows himself a masterly realist, laboring under obvious restrictions in his selection and view of character. Accepting the work, with its limitations, it has neither the strength nor value of 'Silas Lapham,' for its most important character, Lemuel Barker, is not so widely representative, and, shorn of Mr. Howells's interpretation, is insignificant. Deduct Howells from Lapham, and Lapham remains a force in his world; deduct Howells from Lemuel Barker, and there remains a dull, conscientious, country boy, the loss of whom his world could bear lightly. The author does not overlook anything there is in Barker. He makes the most of his reticence, his self-consciousness, his pride that scorns to accept a favor, yet, until he has imbibed city notions, feels no shame in menial service; his dogged adherence to a Puritan conception of right. He absolutely invests Barker's career as man-of-all-work, "elevator boy," horse-car conductor, with mild interest, but, as Barker himself would probably have phrased it, "there's not enough to him" to hold people of moderate cultivation through thirty-five chapters. The author seems to have been oppressed by Barker's insufficiency, for he resorts to much padding of a flimsy kind, and, worse still, of a kind with which he has already made us familiar. He provides the Boston spinster of adequate means, and social position, who laughs immoderately and pours out silly impertinences which are uttered and received as specimens of delightfully frank humor. Then he brings on our old friend, now known as Mrs. Sewell, the lady who keeps her husband's conscience, who alternately snaps and gushes, who frequently explodes in question or affirmation which, though apparently irrelevant, really illustrate an unerring intuition. Marching through the pages is the phalanx of men of good disposition but inclined to perpetual ironical mirth, broad or delicate, according to their position in life. These men, distinctively Howells's men, are frequently entertaining, witty, and acute to a degree which partially offsets their hardness and frightfully bad taste. The author has made the world so intimate with them, that a stranger in New England must suffer a shock of surprise should he meet a man who can treat weakness tenderly, sorrow reverently, who is capable of wholly serious thought and direct, unequivocal expression. Mr. Sewell, the minister, who here leads the band devoted in their own peculiar manner to driving dull care away, is a strained and tiresome person. Attributing to such a man continued and extreme feeling of responsibility for Barker is about as grave a departure from probability in character as any romanticist could be guilty of, with nothing picturesque or entrancing to balance the untruth.

From Mr. Howells's later works, the inference is justifiable that he desires impartially and fearlessly to record New England life both in its broad tendencies and its detail. So far he has shown us that there is little variety in the people—that their prominent characteristics are of a mean order and strikingly disagreeable. Nothing but his literary efficiency could induce inhabitants of the remaining quarters of the globe to tolerate the majority of them. It is a matter of history that we owe our national leaven of spirituality and intellectuality to New England, and no one believes that the stream of ennobling influence has dried at its source. Therefore a series of novels delineating only people devoid of spirituality, and meagrely intellectual, is either a suppression of that part of the truth best worth telling, or an indication of the author's unfortunately contracted vision.

If the author of 'Rankell's Remains' had lived two hundred years ago, he would have cast his work in allegorical form, with Rankell as the monster, Mammon. Rankell is an embodiment of the passion for making money, a passion perhaps no more modern than ancient, and always selfish, unscrupulous, and insatiable. In three imperfectly connected episodes, the author depicts a character so detestable as to excite loathing for the man and for all that he represents. There is no pleasure in reading about Rankell. Still, for the healthy after-effect—the detestation of force expended in evil—it is worth while to share the pain his iniquities inflicted on his victims. The methods by which Rankell rose in life so closely resemble those ascribed by common report to many men who have accumulated great fortunes, that it is foolish to say the author had any individual in mind; but the vengeance wreaked on Rankell's remains by a victim who had been impotent to harm him living, is a clear use of a singular and widely known incident. The employment in fiction of circumstances that all the world has recently been talking of is generally in questionable taste—about on a plane with personal journalism; but in this case the aptness and artistic treatment of the incident are sufficient excuse. It is just as easy to particularize the Convention where Rankell's gold was potent, and to put one's finger on the candidates and wire-pullers. At the Convention Rankell reached the climax of infamy, for here he stepped aside from what might be considered legitimate rascality—went out of his way, as the author says, "to play for his own gain any game that would bring money to him, even though it brought dishonor to the country; and he played it by stirring up what was worst in these men about him—their silliness and greed." Detached from the story, the episode of the Convention is a clever bit of political satire, setting forth certain principles which, if taken to the national heart, might inspire hope that such proceedings will speedily become "portion and parcel of the dreadful past." It is a pity that the author confesses even as much tenderness and compassion for Rankell as he does in the preface and last chapter. The evil done by Rankell was of the kind that literally lives after a man, for it blighted other lives and sowed seeds of infinite misery. It was so far-reaching and malignant that no weak sentiment for a woman's memory, nor endowment of a church of fabulous cost and ethereal beauty, could ever nullify or even extenuate it.

In the tale of 'Sir Percival' the author of 'John Inglesant' attempts an impracticable thing—to infuse a religious rhapsody with an appearance of actuality. He seems to have wanted to write a poem exalting the beauty of unassailable religious faith, of pure and unselfish living, and he has hampered himself in every conceivable way. His own mind is full of the legend of Sir Percival of the 'Morte d'Arthur,' but he makes no better use of it than to harass the reader's mind with ineffectual effort to find some sort of a parallel between the all-but-blameless knight and the very faulty modern hero, Sir Percival Massareen. Then he puts his narrative in the mouth of a girl—a very fine figure for a saint, perhaps, but, as a mere human girl, making about as profound appeal to sympathy as does an iceberg. In a number of poetical passages she amplifies the idea that through suffering alone the spirit may reach purity and holiness, but there is nothing except her abstract ecstasy to prove that she suffered at all. She seems to have lived a life of luxurious seclusion and devout reverie exactly to her taste. In crises that must have plunged a real girl in an abyss of despair, she has no trouble in bearing up. She wonders how she can be so happy. When a young man from the Foreign Office comes with news of Sir Percival which is almost surely fatal, she experiences rapture. Her deliberation in waiting to open the young soldier's last letter until she shall have walked a mile or so through the

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park, and installed herself in a particular corner of a chapel, would be comical if she had not from the first chilled the sense of humor out of existence. The impression made by the tale is the reverse of that which the author intended. It is a failure not because it is inadequate to the test of probability, but because it is so clumsily managed that the imagination which it ought to delight is severely kept in check by cold reason.

It would be difficult to imagine a more worthless and ridiculous book than 'A Demigod,' impossible to write one with less regard for propriety of form and expression. The Demigod is descended through seven generations from an English physician who, disgusted with the degeneracy of his race, retired to the most inaccessible wilds of the Taygetus Mountains. There he ate no meat, cherished no ambitions, avoided notoriety (a task which, considering his location, was not beset with obstacles), and devoted himself to what the author calls "harmonious self-nurture." He bound his son under oath to do likewise, and the oath was transmitted from father to son down to Hector Vyr the seventh, the Demigod. When a Vyr wanted a wife he sallied forth from his castle—furnished always in the highest taste of the time, without regard for cost—crossed a moat, tossed aside a gigantic oak that served for a bridge, and, single-handed, rescued a party of travellers about to be put to the torture by bandits. A perfectly beautiful woman, thus rescued, always gave her love and life in gratitude to her rescuer. Hector Vyr got his wife in traditional fashion. She was without speck or blemish, her teeth were perfectly sound, and she came from Boston. The place of her nativity and bringing-up suggests that the eccentric Vyr method is not essential to the attainment of absolute physical and mental perfection. A difference between Hector Vyr and other men, as marked as his perfection, is his candor of speech, his ignorance of the art of polite equivocation. He is a combination of the *enfant terrible* and the guileless red man of fiction. The charm of his ingenuousness is much enhanced at first by his childish diction, but the author soon wearies of sustaining that, and, long before the end, his only attractive expression is "whyfor." The book would be beneath comment were it not for a slap-dash pretentiousness, a superficial smartness, which easily pass current for cleverness and remarkable originality.

'The Bow of Orange Ribbon' is a very picturesque story of New York in 1756, all alive with sturdy Dutch men and women, and brilliantly set off with King George's soldiers in splendor of scarlet and gold. The antipathy of certain honest, godly Knickerbockers for the youthful English representatives of the flesh and the devil is discussed with a great deal of humor and vivacity, and the romance of the little Dutch maiden with the giddiest of the offenders is as sweet and natural as tale of true love, not always running smooth, can be. The atmosphere of the story is thoroughly old-time, and, whether the separate pictures are historically accurate or not, they make a pleasant combination. The end is happy, and that is pleasant, too, for to leave such whole-souled, friendly, nice people in permanent unhappiness would be positive grief.

The scene of 'Between Two Loves,' another story by Mrs. Barr, is in an English manufacturing town. Its quality is not so excellent as that of 'The Bow of Orange Ribbon,' but it is nevertheless a very good story. The characters are those which the author wisely selects to write about because she is perfectly in sympathy with them. The men have generally warm hearts, quick tempers, deep prejudices, and the fear of the Lord in their souls. The women are pure of heart and mind, faithful and strong in love, and religiously subservient to Calvinistic theories of duty—good men and women all, in the main, whose petty weaknesses, follies, and occasional vices weigh light in the balance against their integrity and truth.

Tenth Census of the United States. 1880. Vol. XX. Statistics of Wages. Washington.

THE twentieth volume of the final report on the Tenth Census of the United States is devoted chiefly to statistics of wages. With a view to showing what wages will buy, there are added tables of the average retail prices of the necessaries of life. Supplementary reports upon trade societies, and strikes, and lock-outs are also included; but as they do not profess to be at all complete, and are of little interest after the lapse of six years from the date of their compilation, we need not refer to them. As to the statistics of wages, it is evident that great labor has been performed by those having the work in charge, both in the selection and in the arrangement of materials. Returns from fifty-three industries were obtained, and are here displayed in 627 tables, accompanied with explanatory remarks. They constitute, according to the belief of the Superintendent of the Census, "the largest magazine of statistics relating to the wages of labor to be found in any single publication." If size is to be the standard of judgment, this opinion is probably correct, as the tables must contain nearly 150 cubic inches of printed matter. But if they are intended to be used by students of social science, they seem to be in several respects untrustworthy.

The work of the statistician is commonly regarded as of a purely clerical character. Nothing could be more erroneous than this view. No statistical work can have other than accidental value, unless it is carried on by men competent to judge of testimony, to weigh evidence, and to conduct experiments in accordance with scientific principles. To distribute blanks and tabulate returns is not enough; it amounts frequently to nothing more than putting an official stamp upon misstatements. As an illustration of the defects of this method, we may take the answers received by the special agent to his question concerning the cost of the labor employed in making ploughs, of which he is moved to observe: "One works cannot produce at an expense of 12½ per cent. for labor what costs the other 50 per cent." Again, we have the statement that while in New York common brick sold at $7 per thousand, and pressed brick at $15, the labor cost was the same for both, $2.25 per thousand. This is improbable enough, but immediately below we read that in Pennsylvania the price per thousand for common brick is $4.60, and for pressed brick $8, while the labor cost for the former is $4.10, and for the latter $7. In the same connection it is stated that in Ohio the prices of fire brick, according to grade, are $16, $30, and $42; that the cost of labor per thousand is $5.45, and that the percentage of wages to cost is 35 per cent. for the cheapest grade, and 40 per cent. for the two higher grades. This means either that labor cost is a different thing from wages, or that price is a different thing from cost, or else that $5.45 is at the same time 35 per cent. of $16, and 40 per cent. of both $30 and $42.

If we attempt to compare the wages paid in different establishments, it is impossible not to be struck with the extent of the variations. Thus in the boot and shoe manufacture we find that a cutter in an establishment in Massachusetts was paid in 1880, $2.50 a day; in an establishment in New York, $2; in one in Pennsylvania, $1.50 to $1.87. In the same establishments a finisher was paid $1.33, $2.33, and $2.62. In two establishments in Ohio, finishers were paid respectively $3.50 and $2 a day. Moreover, the Massachusetts finisher has had his wages reduced from $3.50 in 1870, while the New York finisher has lost very little, and the Ohio finisher has gained fifty cents since 1876—the limit of the table in this case. It is almost incredible that for the same work there should be paid such different sums as $1.33 and $3.50. But if the work is different, such tables as these are worthless; no averaging of results will correct errors that arise from calling different things by the same name.

Turning to the carpet industry, we learn that in a Massachusetts mill a carder is paid $0.60 a day, while in an establishment in Pennsylvania he receives $1.66. In the same two mills reelers get respectively $0.85 and $1.00, warpers $0.99 and $2.50, spinners $0.71 and $2.00, and so forth. In the cotton manufacture, if we compare two establishments in Connecticut, we find the following rates of wages: Card-strippers $0.76 and $0.91, frame-spinners $0.70 and $0.48, spoolers $0.90 and $0.62, warpers $1.75 and $0.91, and mule-spinners $0.84 and $1.25. Taking two woollen mills in New Hampshire, it appears that spoolers get in one $0.67 a day, in the other from $0.75 to $1.00; spinners respectively $0.66 and $1.50 to $1.75; carders $1.02 and $0.80 to $0.90. It would be surprising to find such different rates of wages in establishments in the same State, even if we could discover some proportion in the variations. But when we find that the first mill pays one class of workmen twice what the second mill pays, and another class only half what the second pays, our surprise changes to scepticism. It is impossible to derive any sound inferences from such data. A protectionist could easily prove from them, *more suo*, that half the factories in the country must at once shut up on account of the pauper labor employed in the remainder.

It is hardly probable that any one wishing to trace the prices of the great staples of consumption would consult this report, since the statistics of the various commercial journals and societies are much more complete than those here given. We find the same uncertainty as to the meaning of terms that detracts from the value of the statistics of wages. To take a single illustration: the price of men's heavy boots per pair at one town in Indiana is stated to be from $2 to $2.75; at another town in the same State it is from $4.50 to $7.50. The only useful inference to be drawn from such statistics is, that when the inhabitants of Terre Haute want to buy heavy boots they had better go to the town of Washington to do it.

It is, however, possible to gather some valuable information from a compilation like this. Certain establishments give returns of the wages that they have paid for many years past, and in these cases we may presume that the nature of the services rendered is indicated with substantial accuracy by the name given to the workman. It is somewhat interesting to observe that the number of establishments in which eight hours constitute a day's work has decreased during a term of years, although upon the whole the working day has been materially shortened. In fact it looks as if from nine to ten hours was the normal period for most classes of factory work. If more hours are worked, the product, although somewhat larger, tends to be of inferior quality; while if the day is shorter, the decrease in quality of production is not made up in any other way. As to the time of payment of wages, about the same number of establishments pay monthly as in former years, while more pay weekly—the difference being explained by the fact that yearly and quarter-yearly payments have practically ceased. But these scattered suggestions are a very small return for the labor that has been expended in the preparation of this volume, and we fear that it must take its place in that innumerable procession of public documents that is always marching from the printer's to the paper-mill.

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The Dragon, Image, and Demon. By the Rev. H. C. Du Bose. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

So good a book as Mr. Du Bose has written ought to have been better. In the matter of contents, it is worthy of a place alongside of Dr. Legge's 'Three Religions of China,' for, while the scholarly translator of Confucius gives a view of the three systems from the professor's study, the missionary of Soo-chow shows what these religions are in the daily practice of the people. The student of Christianity does well to see the faith as the Copt, Abyssinian, Greek, Roman, and even the theologians of Peoria or Tübingen, as well Canon Farrar as Gen. Booth, hold it. So it is good, after perusing the savant's monographs read before learned circles, to read the missionary's accounts given from an every-day point of view. Mr. Du Bose, a missionary of fourteen years' experience at Soo-chow, has studied the graphic and artistic symbols at first-hand, and the documents mostly at second-hand. Leaving the genesis and development of the Chinese faiths to be treated by others, he has done a most desirable piece of work in giving us, besides his text, accurate, though rudely drawn and engraved, pictures of objects worshipped. These illustrations number nearly two hundred. He has thus furnished a serviceable handbook of easily recognized divinities in the Chinese pantheon. Lawyers and magistrates on the Pacific Coast and elsewhere, who remember Gibbons's dictum as to the religions of Rome, might easily make this book of Mr. Du Bose's really serviceable.

In literary form, the book is disappointing; and the writer might easily have made it more acceptable if he had followed the best traditions of the craft of book-makers. To say in the preface that "many of the best thoughts in this volume are obtained from the writings of Edkins, Eitel, Legge, and Beal, . . . and other sources," and then to give in the body of the work only quotation-marks, with no reference to author, book, or page, is exasperating. In this the author injures himself, for often the quotation, with context of his own, casts real light upon points left obscure by others. Further, instead of weaving his matter into continuous summaries, his thirty chapters are comminuted into paragraphs with headings in heavy type, like the items of an old-fashioned country newspaper. The author's point of view is, of course, that of an evangelical missionary bent on helping to destroy paganism. He makes much of the Nestorian influence in China, and thinks that some direct modifications of the Buddhist cult are directly traceable to this form of Christianity. For instance, he says (p. 298) that the idea of Amita [Amida] Buddha, and the Western Heaven ["Reformed Buddhism" of Japan] "was borrowed from the Nestorians, whom the Buddhists likely met in Central Asia." In other ways, he perhaps strains the Nestorian theory, and cracks the nuts of nice scholarship too easily. Yet it is certain that this whole subject has as yet not been properly examined. The problem of "Reformed" Buddhism, which has thus far defied the attempts of Max Müller and other Orientalists to solve it, is full of mystery and interest. The Kioto theologians of the Shin-shiu sect shift the sources of the revelation to inaccessible Thibet, and talk of manuscripts and books never as yet seen in Europe. Whether this be the makeshift of ignorance or cunning, or the weakness of ecclesiastics called to face facts that are undermining their system, remains to be seen. Very interesting are the resemblances between Buddhism and the Roman form of Christianity which the author details on page 29. The book abounds with terse statements and epigrammatical generalizations. The author clings to the old view of the traditional trustworthiness of Chinese chronology, giving Confucianism a life of four thousand years, despite the fact that the researches of Mayer and La Couperie show the contrary.

The Mexican Guide. By Thomas A. Janvier. New edition. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1887. Pp. 523.

THIS is a great improvement on the 'Guide' of 1886. Much of the material of the first edition has been thoroughly recast and brought up to date, while additions of over 200 pages have been made. The principal new matter is a chapter on Language and Literature; one giving an Historical Summary; and a much-needed part, 150 pages long, on Provincial Mexico. The revision and enlargement thus effected enable us to give an even more unqualified commendation of the work than that expressed in our review of the former edition. Plan and execution are alike highly successful.

The announcement that the 'Guide' is to be an annual publication, invites criticism on a few details which ought to receive attention in the next issue. Passing over several misprints and occasional infelicitous translations—"the religious," for example, better Spanish than English—we would suggest to Mr. Janvier the need of fuller and better historical authorities than the Mexican "school histories" upon which he relies. We do not mean that his summary of Mexican history is inaccurate, to any extent, but simply that he falls into some errors almost inevitable in a condensation of a condensation. Thus, he repeats the curiously inveterate misstatement that Cortes "burned" his ships (p. 44), wrongly says that the real Remedios image was once in the great *teocalli* of Tenochtitlan (p. 448), and implies that Cortes had no priests with him until after the fall of the capital city, overlooking Juan Diaz and Father Olmedo, not to mention Aguilar, the deacon (p. 20). The statement is made too unguardedly (p. 46) that the first press was established and the first American book printed in 1535, by Juan Pablos. It is true that trustworthy writers assert that the 'Escala Espiritual' was published in the year mentioned, but it should have been added, we think, that no fragment of it is known to have survived, and that it is extremely doubtful if Pablos could have published it, since his date is usually given 1548–60. Prior to him was Juan Cromberger, 1540-54, and from the latter's press came the first American book any part of which is certainly in existence—the 'Manual de Adultos,' two leaves of which are still preserved. Clavigero, Veytia, and Gama should have been placed, of course, in the eighteenth, not the seventeenth century (p. 36). On p. 75, for 1864 read 1861. In the account of Protestant missions (p. 31), no mention is made of the work of the Congregationalists or of the Southern Methodists. Mr. Janvier is more sanguine than the Mexicans themselves as to the decreased extent of illiteracy. He thinks that "probably the majority" (p. 32) can now read and write, but a careful estimate made in 1885 (careful for Mexico, that is—we sympathize with Mr. Janvier's despair at Mexican statistics) placed the total at 2,500,000, or less than one-third. "The Standing Committee of Congress" (p. 18) is perhaps an adequate translation of "Comision Permanente," but it conveys a very inadequate idea of the nature and functions of that body. The ground should have been more clearly stated upon which Gen. Diaz, in the Plan of Tuxtepec, "denied the rights of the existing Government" (p. 74)—the claim, that is, that reëlection was unconstitutional. When Mr. Janvier wrote it, it was true that the "pleasing pastime of bull-fighting is prohibited within the Federal District," but it is so no longer, unfortunately. Perhaps by the time this is printed, the first "funcion" will have been given in the new Plaza de Toros in the capital, the last Congress having repealed the prohibitory law.

With the improvement to be expected in such minor matters as we have enumerated, and with a fuller treatment of provincial Mexico, still a desideratum, it may reasonably be anticipated that the forthcoming editions of this 'Guide' will make all other writings of the kind superfluous.

The Story of the Saracens, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of Bagdad. ["The Story of the Nations" series.] By Arthur Gilman, M.A. With maps, many illustrations, a chronological table, and a list of books treating the subject. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

MR. GILMAN'S 'Story' is a decided improvement upon most of the preceding volumes in the collection to which it belongs. It is of all, perhaps, the best embodiment of the plan expressed by the leading word in all the titles, and at the same time, by its fulness and measured diction, the nearest approach to a real history. Boys will read it with pleasure, and readers well posted in the wide domains of the past will find in it—thanks to the author's use of the latest and best authorities on the subject—much that is new and fresh. The book would be more valuable had more attention been bestowed upon geographical and ethnic conditions and intellectual and social developments, and less space given to personal actions and chiefly warlike exploits—often of little importance and great sameness; but, even as it is, the traits of the Saracenic people and rulers have been vividly and characteristically brought out in their various shades and alternations of native fierceness and heroic and religious exaltation, and the Oriental background has been kept in relief. Free from Christian prejudice in dealing with the Prophet of Allah and the fanatics who carried his evangel, at the point of the lance, from Medina to Poitiers and from Medina to Samarcand, the author is just as little inclined to spread a halo of romantic greatness over characters and scenes in which the sublime so nearly bordered on the barbarous.

Careless proof-reading—a general and grievous defect of the series—is responsible for a large number of misprints. We may instance "*sharg*," for *sharq*, in the first paragraph of the preface.; "to called" (p. 28); "to *dis*pose Kalid" (p. 232); "Antioch, lying directly *east* from Aleppo" (p. 243); "632," for 622, as the year of the Hegira (p. 260); "Emessa" (p. 297); "Semiramus" (p. 356); a succession of blunders on page 340: "Vienna [e], . . . Maçon, Chalons," "the Verres [es] and the Catilines"; and many disfigured German titles in the bibliographical list, which is otherwise very valuable. The author's own haste—a necessary consequence, we suppose, of the rapidity with which the volumes of the series are brought out in succession—is responsible for some loose expressions and some slips. The word "Roman" is very often used instead of *Byzantine* in a way which must be incomprehensible or misleading to most readers; we even read of "the navy of Rome" (p. 278), when the Byzantine is meant. "In the year 660, forty years after the emigration of the Prophet from Mecca"—which took place in 622—is correct only according to the Moslem calendar, which has shorter years than ours, and with reference to the more precise dates of the occurrences (p. 284). "Southeast of Nineveh and Mosul" (p. 351) is not correct, Mosul being on the site of Nineveh. Nor is "Sus, the royal Shushan of ancient Median memories" (p. 256), "Median" standing for *Persian*. The worst slip is "Nineveh on the Euphrates" (p. 4).

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The Struggle of the Bulgarians for National Independence under Prince Alexander. A Military and Political History of the War between Bulgaria and Servia in 1885. Translated from the German of Major A. von Huhn. London: Murray. 1886.

In a little more than three hundred pages, Major A. von Huhn has narrated what he describes as the "Military and Political History of the War between Bulgaria and Servia in 1885." That the book is readable throughout no one will deny; but a very unequal value attaches to the military and political parts of the narrative. The former is a record of occurrences which passed before the eyes of the writer, and can, therefore, be accepted as an authentic account, by a thoroughly competent eye-witness, of a struggle which the critical condition of Southeastern Europe invested with a European interest. The political narrative is simply an excessive glorification of Prince Alexander and all his doings, and is largely composed, as it seems to us, out of the gossip of political *quidnuncs*—an abundant species, we suppose, in Bulgaria, as in every other country.

Prince Alexander, unquestionably, showed himself to be a brave and able commander in the brief war against Servia, but it cannot be denied, also, that he failed conspicuously in the first duty of a Prince of Bulgaria at the present time. That duty was to maintain cordial relations with the Czar and the Government of Russia. There is little doubt that for Russia the wisest as well as most generous policy would have been to leave the Bulgarians to the unfettered enjoyment of the freedom which Russian soldiers had won for them. By so doing she would have grappled them to her by hooks of steel. But there are few governments which, in a choice of policies, make selection of the wisest and most generous; and, having regard to the gigantic sacrifices incurred by Russia in the cause of Bulgarian independence, it was only natural that she should be excessively jealous of the intrusion of other influences into the new principality. The Czar and his advisers were all the more jealous and suspicious because they knew that whatever could be done for the destruction of their influence, without actually provoking a breach of the peace, would be attempted by the Austro-Hungarian Government, and not in any way discouraged by the British Ministry and the British Houses of Parliament. It might well appear to Russian eyes that the question at stake was not whether Bulgaria should be free or Russianized, but whether the Russian should be ousted from the province in order to give place to the German and the Magyar. Prince Alexander, in proportion to his ability to rule as an independent sovereign, must have chafed under the sense of tutelage; but he ought to have recognized that it was the condition of his ruling at all. This he did not recognize, and the loss of his crown and the present critical condition of united Bulgaria are the consequences of his want of perception.

Maj. A. von Huhn will admit nothing of this. He attributes the distrust with which Prince Alexander inspired the Russian Government to the general depravity of the Russian character. He touches lightly, however, upon this part of his hero's Bulgarian career. It is as a ruler of the Bulgarian people that he makes him the subject of his glorification. According to the Major, the achievements of the Prince, in this character, are nothing short of miraculous. Not only has he, single-handed, civilized the Bulgarians, but—a miracle, we believe, without precedent in the history of mankind—he has, by the inspiring influence of his single personality, animated the entire people with a spirit of religious toleration. The great adversary with whom he has had to contend is, of course, the Russian "agent." We confess to a feeling of despair whenever, in a book purporting to be historical, we come across this Russian "agent." The ubiquitousness of this agency is only to be paralleled by its complete inefficiency. According to Maj. A. von Huhn, Russian "agents" had been freely sprinkled over Eastern Rumelia ever since the close of the Russo-Turkish war. Yet these gentry had no idea that the design to unite the two Bulgarias was hatching until it had taken shape and action. In Bulgaria the Russian "agent" appears to have devoted his sagacious mind to the invention and circulation of scandalous gossip about Prince Alexander, with the view, we presume, of rousing the austere morality of the Bulgarian people into revolt.

The real cause of the animosity of the Russian Government against the Prince is not to be found in the silly proceedings of these intangible agents, but in a very simple and sufficient reason. Three days before the revolution broke out in Philippopolis which deposed the Turkish Governor, the Prince, in a personal interview, had assured M. de Giers that he did not believe a movement for the unification of the two provinces was likely to break out within a measurable space of time, and that, in any case, he personally would undertake nothing in that direction. When, close upon the heels of this declaration, the movement occurred, and the Prince, without a moment's hesitation, placed himself at the head of it, the Czar naturally felt that he had been deceived and insulted. Maj. A. von Huhn declares that the Prince was himself as deceived and unprepared as the Czar; and this may possibly be so. But it is hard to believe this, and if hard for an indifferent outsider, it is not strange that it was altogether incredible to the Czar.

The main facts of the war between Servia and Bulgaria are well known. The greatest danger to Bulgaria was occasioned by the fact that when the Servian army crossed the frontier, three parts of the Bulgarian troops were far away from the scene, being collected on the road to Adrianople to oppose a Turkish advance on Philippopolis. This danger was enormously increased by the order of the Czar recalling the Russian officers who were serving with the Bulgarian troops. There did not remain in consequence a single officer with Prince Alexander above the rank of captain, or one who had seen more than eight years' service. But the enthusiasm of all classes wrought marvels. The troops were transferred from the Rumelian frontier to that of Bulgaria with astonishing speed, considering the almost total lack of proper machinery for effecting the transfer. The young captains, promoted to the command of brigades and divisions, developed unexpected talents for command. The Servians, when they thought that Sophia, the Bulgarian capital, was already in their possession, were repulsed with heavy loss, after two days' severe fighting at Slivnitza. The Bulgarians then assumed the offensive. The Servians were driven back, in a demoralized condition, across the frontier. They endeavored to make a stand in the town of Pirot. But by this time the fight had been pretty well knocked out of them, and the Bulgarians had little difficulty in occupying the town. The Servian kingdom now lay open to the victors. The Servian army was mutinous, and would have disbanded itself if at all hard pressed. At this supreme moment, however, Austria stepped in, and saved its wretched tool, King Milan, from the fate to which it had exposed him. Under a threat of war, the Austrian envoy constrained Prince Alexander to stay his advance. An armistice was arranged, which was followed by a peace.

All this is told by Maj. A. von Huhn in a very lively and interesting manner. Interesting, too, for military readers, are his remarks on the causes of the Bulgarian victories. The Servian troops were, he says, a militia embodied for the purpose of the invasion, while the greater part of the Bulgarian army consisted of regiments which (as Maj. A. von Huhn sorrowfully acknowledges) had been admirably trained and disciplined by their Russian instructors. They fought, in consequence, with a unity and tenacity that did not exist among their opponents. Then the young Bulgarian officers exhibited a dash and readiness of resource, an aptitude for military command, which were really amazing. A general in command, as the Major points out, is liable to be over-cautious because he has a reputation to lose. If he wins a battle, it is no more than is expected of him; but if he loses, he loses also all that he has hitherto achieved. But a young captain suddenly placed in the position of a general has everything to gain, and risks nothing. If he fails, the worst that can be urged against him is that the experiences of a regimental officer do not suffice for the duties of a general; but if he wins, he mounts up, as it were, by a single step, into that most select class of "heaven-born generals." The main cause, however, of the Bulgarian victories was the patriotic spirit which animated the rank and file of the army.

Maj. A. von Huhn, who appears never to have heard of the Bulgarian massacres and other notorious incidents of Turkish rule, would have us believe that the Bulgarians had little to complain of at the hands of the Turkish Pashas and their underlings. But the zeal for their national existence displayed equally by Moslems and Christians, the sacrifices made by all classes of the population, belie his fanciful picture of Turkish rule. It was a war in which every Bulgarian soldier felt that he had a direct personal interest. They fought not only for freedom, but to compel an indifferent and unbelieving Europe to acknowledge that here was a people which had fairly won its right to be free. The Servians, on the other hand, were without any such animating influences, and appear to have been most inefficiently commanded as well. The handling of their artillery was particularly bad. There is a superstition in the Servian army that a special disgrace attaches to the loss of artillery; the consequence of which was that the Servians used them only at long ranges, and left their infantry unsupported by artillery fire just when these stood most in need of it. Only upon one occasion, in the succession of encounters between Slivnitza and Pirot, was a Servian battery handled with courage and thorough effectiveness, and Maj. A. von Huhn records, with pardonable pride, that this was commanded by a Prussian officer. He had been trained in a school not favorable to the growth of idle superstitions.

Goethe's Faust. A Commentary upon the Literary Bibles of the Occident. By Denton J. Snider. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1886. 2 vols.

In one of the interesting essays of the late Wilhelm Scherer are to be found some amusing comments upon the fact that in these days every man has his own Goethe. "I know a Goethe," says Scherer, "who, when he wrote the lines,

> 'Warte nur, balde
> Ruhest du auch,'

was thinking something like this: 'How tired I am with climbing the Kickelhahn; but at any rate the wind, which is usually so disagreeable here, is quiet, and, God be praised, I shall soon be in bed.'" Mr. Snider's Goethe is not of this sort, but of its polar opposite. He is a poet who wrote the First Part of "Faust" in accordance

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with the following "structural outline," which we quote literally from vol. i, pp. 105-106:

"I. The internal movement, which shows the struggle in Faust between Intelligence, which denies Truth, and Aspiration which affirms Truth. This is theoretical denial out of which Mephisto is generated. From the 'First Soliloquy' to 'Auerbach's Cellar.'

"II. The external movement, which shows Faust's struggle with the Perverted World, into which he is conducted by Mephisto. This is practical denial, realized not only in the action of a man, but in an institution, a world. From 'Auerbach's Cellar' to the scene called 'Gloomy Day.'

"III. The struggle in which Faust subordinates Mephisto and compels him to aid in rescuing Margaret, who, however, refuses the external rescue, but obtains forgiveness, the inner reconciliation. To the end."

Number II. of this scheme is mapped out in the table of contents thus:

"I. Auerbach's Cellar, or the Perverted Tavern.
II. The Domestic Perversion.
(1.) The Witch's Kitchen, or the Perverted Family.
(2.) The Story of Margaret, or the True Family Perverted.
III. The Social Perversion.
(1.) Walpurgis Night, or Perverted Society.
(2.) Walpurgis Night's Dream — Literary Brocken."

Mr. Snider has evidently anticipated difficulty in getting his views promptly accepted by the world. Here and there he takes his readers into his confidence, and warns them to put no faith in what the silly critics may say of him. Thus, alluding to his propensity for schematization, he says, p. 105:

"The lofty critic, we know, is on his perch, and is ready to pounce down upon these harmless diagrams, declaring that they are evolved from the writer's inner consciousness and not from the poem; for has not he, the intellectual giant and infallible critical pope, read the poem himself and found no such thing there? So he will say, because he is always saying so, having little else to say in any matter but No. Reader, do not regard him, I beg thee, he is a denier, really his brain leaves off where this *Faust* begins, and has never entered it, cannot enter it, in his present unregenerate condition. Test the scheme by the fact; if it is wrong, make another and better; but beware of any one who puts a zero into thy soul, lest he end by putting thy soul into a zero."

It can do no harm to admit that the raptorial instinct did begin to stir within us faintly at sight of such a prey, and if it were a simple question of putting a zero into some one's soul, we might make the pounce even now and jump the consequences. But the bare thought of incurring the awful responsibility of putting some one's soul into a zero is surely enough to make one shrink back in dismay and consternation. We keep our perch.

In other words, we pass in voiceless wonder from the outline to see what the filling-in may be. Concerning the familiar opening monologue of "Faust," this commentator discourses thus, page 145:

"Herewith, too, is derived the present form of the poem: it springs from the innermost nature and essence of the theme. The form is that of a soliloquy, of one man talking to himself and unfolding in himself. Still it is a drama, though it be a drama of the soul holding its dialogue and acting its parts all within itself. To Faust, another man with whom he might talk, can have no veritable reality, if there be, as he thinks, no veritable reality; indeed, the entire world outside of him is a high-walled, smoothed-stoned fortress, which no knowledge can scale. For the present, therefore, he has only himself to talk with, hence the monologue. But out of himself he will generate certain shapes with which he may hold converse hereafter," etc., etc.

Here we must call a halt. When a man deliberately puts it down in black and white that a dramatic poem begins with a soliloquy because, in virtue of philosophic necessity, there is no one for the speaker to talk with, and because any other characters have first to be "generated" from the mind of the soliloquist, we cannot undertake to follow his lucubrations further. It is not that we are of a savage and exacting temperament. Notwithstanding Mr. Snider's poor opinion of the whole critic tribe, the writer of these lines is a person of suave and teachable disposition, with whom it is a veritable hobby to keep his mind open to the light from all quarters. He would be the last one in the world to make excessive demands upon the writer of books. But really it seems reasonable to draw the line between sense and nonsense.

We would not, however, seem too peremptory in this matter. There is much that is good in Mr. Snider's work, but we hold that its method is radically vicious. And this opinion springs from no shallow contempt for philosophy, from no lack of an organ for philosophic thought. Beyond doubt philosophy has much to say in the interpretation of "Faust," and there is much to be learned from the philosophic commentator. But there is little indeed to be learned from one who deals largely in abstractions such as found no lodgment in the mind of Goethe. This is what Mr. Snider does. To be sure, he denounces others, his predecessors, for doing the same thing, but that is ultimately because their interpretation differed greatly from his. What we say is, that if the araneous method of spinning cobwebs from one's own interior is to be adopted at all, it is a comparatively unimportant matter what particular sort of web is spun. This method we call wrong, and we call it so not simply out of prejudice for another method, but because it has been tried and found wanting. For thirty or forty years after the death of Goethe, the expounders of "Faust" nearly all went at their work in the manner of Mr. Snider. They had the field to themselves, and what they made of the poem is well known. They made of it either a Serbonian bog, or a nightmare, or a joke, according to the temper of the person who tried to read it in the light of their explanation. But now a better era has arrived. Of late the drama has been extensively studied and expounded in accordance with the principles of common sense and sound philology. The result is, that we now see the beginning of a better *entente* between the modern intellectual world and the great poem of its great poet. Multitudes of people have learned to read "Faust" and enjoy it. But if the poem were what Mr. Snider makes it out to be, the great majority of these people would turn from it with aversion. It would appeal to no one, except, perhaps, the small class of austere philosophers to which he himself belongs. If it were necessary, for example, to read the story of *Margaret* as he reads it, to put his construction upon it and to think about it as he does, the story would become to nearly all those who now read it with delight an insufferable bore, from which a tale of Zola would be a welcome relief. For they would say, Here at least is life.

We are, therefore, compelled to do substantially what the author has himself more than once surmised that all the bleareyed, shallow-pated critics would do—namely, warn the public that the volumes before us are an exposition, not of Goethe's "Faust," but of Denton J. Snider's. As an exemplification of the araneous process, they are good—the best, perhaps, in the market. If, therefore, one admires that process; if he enjoys having a discursive philosopher between himself and his author; if he is fond of tossing on a sea of abstractions, and takes delight in a never-ending chase after world-embracing symbolisms; if he wants a guide who will always try to persuade him that every hole in the ground leads down to the roots of Ygdrasil; if, moreover, he enjoys a literary style which is surcharged with the worst mannerisms of Carlyle; if his soul is awed by capital initials, and his taste revels in grandiose rhetoric apropos of little or nothing; if he finds pleasure in sustained and highly wrought apostrophes, in astonishing figures and forms of expression, and in transcendental jerkiness generally; if, in short, a person likes that sort of thing, Mr. Snider's commentary will be just about the sort of thing he will like.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allaire, Etienne. La Bruyère dans la maison de Condé. Etudes biographiques et historiques sur la fin du XVIIe siècle. 8vo. T. i and ii. Boston: Schoenhof.
Bernard, J. Retrospections of America. 1797-1811. Edited from the MS. By Mrs. Bayle Bernard. With an Introduction, Notes, and Index by Laurence Hutton and Brander Mathews. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Bowne, Prof. B. P. Introduction to Psychological Theory. Harper & Brothers.
Carey, Rosa Nouchette. Uncle Max. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Chapman, Elizabeth Rachel. A Comtist Lover, and Other Studies. Scribner & Welford.
Delzant, Alidor. Paul de Saint-Victor. Boston: Schoenhof.
Heine, H. Travel-Pictures; including the Tour in the Harz, Norderney, and Book of Ideas, together with the Romantic School. Scribner & Welford.
Kingsley, C. Yeast: A Problem. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Meriwether, L. A Tramp Trip. How to See Europe on Fifty Cents a Day. Harper & Brothers.
O'Connor—McWade. Gladstone, Parnell, and the Great Irish Struggle. General Introduction by Charles Stewart Parnell, M. P. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Hubbard Brothers.
Ohnet, Georges. Noir et Rose. New York: Christern.
Ohnet, G. Edmée. Les Dames de Croix-Mort. Frederick Warne & Co. 35 cents.
Oliver—Walt—Jones, Profs. A Treatise on Algebra. Ithaca: Dudley F. Finch.
O'Reilly, Dr. B. Novissima; or, Where Do Our Departed Go? The Baltimore Publishing Co.
Pougin, A. Verdi: an Anecdotic History of his Works. Scribner & Welford.
Rees, J. R. The Diversions of a Book-Worm. George J. Coombes. $1.25.
Roosevelt, T. Life of Thomas H. Benton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. The Lay of the Last Minstrel. Edited with Notes by W. J. Rolfe. Illustrated. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 75 cents.
Scott, Sir W. The Waverley Novels. Vols. i.-vi. Philadelphia. J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.75 per volume.
Scrivener, F. H. A. Novum Testamentum Textus Stephanici, A. D. 1550. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Sons and Daughters. By the Author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Spear, J. W. Out of the Toils. Phillips & Hunt. $1.25.
Stack, E. L. Grammar and Language. An Attempt at the Introduction of Logic into Grammar. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth. $2.50.
Tennyson, Lord A. Locksley Hall, Sixty Years After, etc. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Thackeray, W. M. The Virginians. Handy Edition. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.
The Campaign of Fredericksburg. November-December, 1862. A Study for Officers of Volunteers. By a Line Officer. Scribner & Welford.
Thomas, Miss Bertha. Elizabeth's Fortune: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Tinseau, L. de. Hélène. Frederick Warne & Co. 35 cents.
Towle, G. M. The Nation in a Nutshell; A Rapid Outline of American History. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Towle, G. M. Young People's History of Ireland. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Vaschalde, Henry. Olivier de Serres, sa vie et ses travaux. 8vo. Boston: Schoenhof.
Von Ranke, L. History of the Latin and Teutonic Nations, from 1494 to 1514. Scribner & Welford.
Von Reber, Dr. F. History of Mediæval Art. Translated by Joseph Thacher Clarke. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Warfield, Prof. B. B. An Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Fine Arts.

THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

THE twentieth annual exhibition of the American Water-Color Society at the Academy of Design comprises 656 pictures. This is a smaller number than was hung last year, but the present exhibition shows a better average quality than its immediate predecessors. While the average is good and there are fewer offensively bad pictures than have been seen in former years, it is noticeable that this exhibition is unmarked by any single conspicuously fine work; in short, there is no "sensation picture," or what the French call, in their expressive art parlance, a "*clou*." Mr. Abbey, to whom we have been accustomed to look for such a work, is absent, and Mr. Winslow Homer, who has at other times overtopped his contemporaries at these exhibitions, this year only sends some unimportant and not particularly attractive sketches in Florida. Mr. J. Alden Weir's picture, "Consolation," No. 335, is hung in the place of honor of the exhibition, that is, in the middle of the south wall of the south gallery. It is in many respects an ex-

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cellent work. Its greatest merits are an agreeable general tone and a good quality of atmosphere; its great defects are insufficient drawing of the figures and a somewhat eccentric perspective. As it is, it is one of the best things in the exhibition, but it does not rise far enough above the other pictures to be a real *clou*.

"Russian Tea," No. 384, by Miss Kathleen H. Greatorex, hung at one end of the same gallery, is an important work. It shows a thorough knowledge of the medium, and, being a composition of still life, it possesses one quality that every still life should have, to claim a reason for being—beauty of color. That it is insubstantial and flimsy, that the brass urn and kettle, the china cups, and the bouquet of flowers should all be of the same texture, is unfortunate, for, had more care been taken in painting to give to each of these objects a distinctive texture, the picture would have gained a great deal. It is quite a large picture, painted in pure water color, and has the distinction of having been awarded an honorable mention at the Salon of 1886. At the other end of the south gallery is hung a picture by T. de Thulstrup, "Horse Artillery Going into Action," No. 299. The composition is striking and the figures are drawn with a certain dash and spirit, but it lacks the quality of color. Truth of color in detail is sacrificed to a general scheme of dusty reddish brown, and to such an extent that the picture is almost a monochrome. It is, however, cleverly done, and far more successful as a picture of horses and soldiers than we are wont to see from the hands of American artists. Mr. de Thulstrup's facility as an illustrator stands him in good stead in undertaking such a subject as this one, for he is accustomed to look out for general effect. We are apt to find in his pictures a completeness that is lacking in pictures made by more timid hands. "A January Thaw," No. 336, by F. Hopkinson Smith, a large picture of Madison Square looking south, remarkable for a general aspect of outdoors and the realization of an effect of New York atmosphere on a muggy day in winter; "A Tramp," No. 418, by Hamilton Hamilton, a bright effect of sunshine in a door-yard with figures; "The Scarlet Letter," No. 396, by Rhoda Holmes Nicholls, much more successful in the treatment of the landscape than in the figures of Hester Prynne and the villagers in the street of the old town where the scene is laid; and "They're Coming," No. 352, by James Symington, an interior with two figures of young women at work spinning wool, are other pictures hung in prominent places in the south gallery. We find here also a large study by Meissonier, No. 443, lent by Mr. John Jacob Astor, a single figure of a soldier of the time of Henri II., no more remarkable than what might be done by any first-rate figure painter. Though rather brutally handled, it is a good, vigorous drawing, and the pose of the soldier sturdily planted is spirited. "A Portrait," No. 431, good in character and attractive by its unaffected boyishness and good-humored expression, is by J. Alden Weir; and No. 456, "The First Snow," is an interior possessing some of the fine qualities of color of the "Consolation," but careless in drawing and hard in texture, by the same artist. "A Sea Witch," No. 329, is a handsome piece of color by George W. Maynard. It is thoroughly artistic, and impresses at once as being something quite out of the common. The half-submerged figure of the Sea Witch is a little confused in drawing, but its exceptional qualities of color make this work of Mr. Maynard's one of the most interesting pictures of the exhibition.

Seven water-colors by Robert Blum are scattered about the exhibition. They are all quite small and are sketchy bits of Dutch scenes. There is not much of them, but what there is is of an excellent sort. "Costume Study," No. 199, is a small figure of a Dutch woman in white cap and apron, charmingly drawn and delightful in sentiment. Of Mr. Blum's other pictures, "On the Dunes," No. 198, and "House Duties," No. 454, may be picked out for particular mention. W. H. Lippincott, always a prominent contributor to the water-color exhibitions, and one of those who best know how to manage the fickle medium, is well represented this year. "The Approaching Storm, Crécy-en-Brie," No. 363, shows him at his best in landscape, and "The Last Rose," No. 27, although somewhat artificial, is a cleverly painted head. "Gentlemen of the XVIIIth Century," No. 271, by Léon Moran, a brilliantly handled little study; "The Country Boarder," No. 248, by F. Childe Hassam, a quietly painted light interior with a single figure; "Julius Cæsar and his Grandmother," No. 98, a negro character sketch by Alfred Kappes; "The Fortune Teller," No. 593, by Francis Miller, an unequal work, good in drawing, but crude in color; "The Favorite Print," No. 51, a delicate bit of painting by F. C. Jones; "The Student," No. 57, an ambitious work by Wm. Magrath, possessing good qualities of color and some excellent painting in the accessories, but rather weak in the drawing of the figures; "The Letter," No. 21, a dainty little composition by Percy Moran, and the half dozen pictures by Irving R. Wiles, including "Study in Sunlight," No. 187, and "Head," No. 372, are among other notable contributions from figure painters.

The landscapes in the exhibition are, as usual, numerous and of varying degrees of excellence. It is a great temptation to the tyro in water-color painting to sketch a landscape, it seems so easy. There are fewer of the meaningless daubs resulting from such attempts than in former exhibitions, and there are happily each succeeding year fewer artists and critics ready to find imaginary beauties in them. Of serious landscape work, we find some here that is really excellent. In "Moncour," No. 293, by Emil Carlsen, a picturesque French motive is admirably treated. It is fresh and true in color. D. W. Tryon, who usually sends four or five pictures, has but one this year, "Morning," No. 322, a strong realistic effect broadly washed in over a grayish-paper ground. Two pictures, suggestions rather than pictures, with a charm of their own, are by A. H. Wyant, "Pat Rooney's Farm," No. 106, and "Forenoon in Kerry," No. 278. Several crisply-handled winter scenes, such as "A Winter Piece," No. 426, and cleanly painted bits of field and sky, such as "Long Island Study," No. 298, by Bruce Crane; such pretty color schemes as the landscapes by Charles M. Dewey, "Dark Days," No. 59, and "The Autumn Light," No. 412, or those by J. Francis Murphy, "November Gray," No. 58, and "On the Lowlands," No. 388; such bright colored studies as R. W. Van Boskerck's "White Birches, Saddle River," No. 29, or "On the Edge of the Pond," No. 234; such cool and refreshing forest scenes as "Woodland Path," No. 406, by R. M. Shurtleff; such richly toned impressions as "A Harvest Moonrise," No. 83, by F. Childe Hassam, go to make up a very creditable showing in landscape.

Horatio Walker shows two good animal pictures, "Landscape and Calves," No. 34, and a flock of sheep in "Evening," No. 70. "Dutch Farmyard," by Ter Meulen, No. 377, is a fine piece of subdued color, showing a shepherd with his flock and his sheep dog at the doorway of a fold. J. A. S. Monks is represented by half-a-dozen of his characteristic studies of sheep. "Late Afternoon, Winter," No. 16, and "Repose," No. 219, perhaps best exemplify him. When we add that Henry Farrer, F. W. Freer, Edward Moran, C. Harry Eaton, Charles Warren Eaton, Matilda Brown, W. V. Birney, W. H. Drake, Perceval De Luce, Frances Richards, C. C. Curran, Rosina Emmet, W. H. Gibson, F. S. Church, Alice Hirschberg, John La Farge, H. Bolton Jones, J. C. Nicoll, F. D. Millet, Homer Martin, George H. McCord, H. W. Ranger, Henry Muhrman, F. K. M. Rehn, R. F. Zogbaum, W. J. Whittemore, C. Y. Turner, George H. Smillie, and James D. Smillie, whose work is familiar to regular visitors to the water-color exhibitions, are represented here by from one to as many as ten examples each—a fair idea of the character of the exhibition may be obtained.

It is plain that there has been a good deal of weeding out this year, since but half the works sent in to the jury for examination were hung; and while no doubt some good pictures have had the misfortune to be left out, the exhibition has gained greatly in that it presents a much more complete and good all-around appearance than heretofore. This is progress. Still, more progress may be made, and of a kind, too, that will tell immensely on the character of the exhibitions, if the artists will take more pains to find subjects peculiarly fitted for illustrations in the medium of water-color. Without being hypercritical, it may be said that the greater part of the pictures in the present exhibition might better have been painted in oil; there is so little of the true water-color quality about them. Mr. Blum's "Costume Study," or Mr. Percy Moran's "Gentlemen of the Eighteenth Century," or some of Mr. W. H. Drake's landscape motives, or Miss Greatorex's "Russian Tea," are good examples of fit subjects aptly treated in the main; and more of the sort of work shown in them, if it were to be found generally throughout the galleries, would give a distinctive character to the exhibitions which they do not at present possess in a sufficient degree.

THE ETCHING CLUB EXHIBITION.

THE New York Etching Club holds its regular exhibition this year as usual in connection with the Water Color Society, and the west gallery is entirely given up to the exhibition of etchings. There are 234 numbers in all. Such an exhibition of etchings by American artists as this one is would have been impossible a few years ago. There is great progress shown, and some half-dozen etchers have produced plates this year which would hold their own in any company. That there is still a considerable quantity of the old-fashioned trash that passed for etching in New York years ago is undeniable, but there is such a large amount of really meritorious work here to overbalance it that its effect on the general character of the exhibition is insignificant.

As a fair example of the genuine progress which has been made by our etchers, the collection of reproductive etchings made from pictures in the A. T. Stewart collection, and intended for the catalogue of that exhibition about to be published, may be cited. The plates are all small, but some of them are of great merit. "Cattle" (after Troyon), No. 11, by Wm. M. Chase, admirably suggests the rich quality of the original painting, while as an etching *per se* it is bold and sure in execution. "A Misty Morning" (after Michetti), No. 76, by Hamilton Hamilton, is singularly charming from its purity of tone and the delicate gradations in its subtle values. "The Month of May" (after Daubigny), No 136, by Thomas Moran, and "Landscape and Cattle" (after Troyon), No. 67, by R. Swain Gifford, remarkable for the fidelity with which the respective painters' styles are preserved in the reproduction, and the skill with which the effect is obtained; "Reminiscence of the Franco-Prussian War" (after Meissonier), No 165, by F. Raubicheck; "La Marquise" (after Madra-

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zo), No. 78, by W. St. John Harper; "After the Ball" (after Alfred Stevens), No. 93, by J. S. King; and two little bits of "Objects of Art," Nos. 210 and 211, by Sidney L. Smith, all of the best sort of modern work, are among the other things in this Stewart collection that are so well done as to call for special praise. It must be remembered that reproductive work permits of less liberty of treatment than is possible in an original etching. It is a question of faithfully copying an original and at the same time attempting to render, in a form of art presenting many trying technical difficulties, the spirit of this original, which in the case of oil painting has been done in a medium capable of much more than can be obtained with the simple line and tone of etching. That the reproductive etchings just mentioned are so successful is a gratifying proof that some of our etchers have reached a high degree of technical excellence. In the same field we find a large etching by Hamilton Humilton. "The Communicants" (after Jules Breton), No. 75. Mr. Hamilton occupies a well-earned place in the front rank of American etchers. He has done nothing better than this plate. He is not afraid to use frank, vigorous lines, there is no trace of tricks in printing, and his work is an exceptional example of completeness among the large etchings in the exhibition. Mr. Hamilton also exhibits a large etching, "The Hanging of the Crane" (after F. C. Jones), No. 72, which, though it is marked by a fine breadth of effect and well-understood management of large masses of light and shadow, is a coarser kind of work, and does not show in any part of it such delicacy as we find in the treatment of the children's white robes, for instance, in "The Communicants."

"When the Harbor Bar is Moaning," No. 85, by Thomas Hovenden, a large etching showing a fisherman's hut and two figures of women at the doorway, is the same composition as his picture exhibited at an Academy exhibition a year or two ago. It is an important figure work, serious in conception and strong in execution. It is pre-eminent in work of its class in the exhibition. "Boy with Kettle" (after Murillo), No. 220, and "Portrait of a Man" (after Rembrandt), No. 221, by C. Y. Turner, are of the best figure work here. "The Portrait" is especially successful, and is etched with great vigor and sureness.

"The Fog Whistle," No. 16, and "The Narrows," No. 17, by Reginald Cleveland Coxe, are two original etchings that call for special notice. Mr Coxe has been known in New York for three or four years as a painter of marine subjects, whose pictures, while sometimes impressive for an evident truth of observation, often showed such a hesitating and insufficient execution as to prevent their sincerity of intention being taken for all it was worth. This was notably so in the case of a picture exhibited three years ago by Mr. Coxe, called "Hella Rock," which provoked generally the most adverse criticism, while a few held that if not in itself a completely successful work, it was at least a very original one, and that the artist's future work would prove his quality. Whether Mr. Coxe can be said to have since fulfilled the expectations of his supporters in his pictures in oil or not, he has made his début as an etcher with two of the most interesting things in the present exhibition. "The Fog Whistle" shows a sloop yacht riding over the heavy ocean swell in a thick fog, the bowsprit rising high in the air as the stanch little craft is lifted by the rolling mass of water. The feeling of salt-water atmosphere and the dampness of the fog is exceedingly well rendered. "The Narrows," an ocean steamer slowly ploughing up the bay in the distance, and a small rowboat with two men in it in the foreground, is remarkable for the same quality of atmosphere. Both are deliciously suggestive of the sea. If these etchings do not show such a simplicity of technique as is to be found in what we consider standard work, the execution, though somewhat timid and uncertain, suffices to express the artist's idea. It is refreshing to find something out of the beaten track in art, and Mr. Coxe's etchings are well worth looking at because they are both novel and good.

"Shades of Night," No. 99, is one of a number of good landscapes contributed by W. L. Lathrop, and possesses a charming quality of atmosphere. The sky is simply done and is light and full of air. Charles A. Platt, one of the most productive of American etchers, and one whose works recommend themselves to lovers of the art on account of their genuine feeling for the picturesque and a simple and direct manner of putting down facts, exhibits a characteristic piece called "Goldsmith's Bridge," No. 158. Other new landscapes are "Canal in Holland" (after R. W. Van Boskerck), No. 203, by W. H. Shelton; "Tromsöe, Norway," No. 156, by T. C. Parrish; "Cannes—The Harbor," No. 149, by Stephen Parrish; "A Winter Morning," No. 141, by J. C. Nicoll; "An October Evening," No. 198, by H. Pruett Share; and some picturesque bits by Blanche Dillaye, "Hill and Sky," No. 20, "On the Maas," No. 23, and "A Corner in Dort," No. 21.

The Etching Club publishes a catalogue illustrated with eight etchings by Samuel Colman, F. W. Freer, R. Swain Gifford, W. St. John Harper, J. A. S. Monks, Thomas Moran, W. H. Shelton, and C. Y. Turner. It is neatly got up and is valuable as a record of the club's excellent work.

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